



**NIILM**  
University



Advanced Social  
Psychology

**SYLLABUS**

**The field of social psychology**

Social psychology – a working definition; social psychology focuses on the behaviour of individuals; Research methods in social psychology. Behaviour and Attitudes: Attitude formation, Attitude measurement, attitude change - theory of cognitive dissonance.

**Conformity**

Classic studies - Sherif's studies of norm formation Asch's studies of group pressure, Milgram's obedience experiment, Interpersonal Attraction & Altruism : A simple theory of attraction, linking : proximity, physical attractiveness, similarity vs complementarity, determinants of attraction and altruism, sociometry, Communication: Process - Channels - Types – Barriers to communication - Communication and interpersonal behaviour.

**Groups Processes**

Types of groups, group cohesiveness, group morale & social climate; group Vs individuals in problem solving, positive and negative impacts of group influence, cooperation and competition; Leaders and leadership - types of leaders, functions of leaders, basic styles of leaders, personal qualities of leaders.

**Aggression**

The nature of aggression, process of aggression, causes of aggression - reducing aggression; war and peace - aggression in various social settings; psychological causes of war, facts about war, suggestions for Peace. Public opinion and propaganda: Dynamics of public opinion, measurement of public opinion, changing public opinion propaganda: Techniques of propaganda: Instruments of propaganda.

**Suggested Readings:**

1. Baron, Robert. A. and Byrne, Donn Social Psychology, 7th edition, Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.
2. Lindgren, Henry. C. An introduction to Social Psychology, John Wiley & Sons.
3. Myers, David G. Social Psychology 2nd Edition McGraw Hill Book Company.
4. Adinarayanan. S.P. Social Psychology.

# **THE FIELD OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

## **STRUCTURE**

- Learning objectives
- Social psychology—a working definition
- Social psychology focuses on the behavior of individuals
- Research methods in social psychology
- Behavior and attitudes
- Attitude formation
- Attitude measurement
- Attitude change
- Theory of cognitive dissonance
- Review questions

## **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Discuss that the superior part of our life and behaviour is social;
- Explain the method needs are satisfied in the social context;
- Distinguish flanked by physical and social environment;
- Analysis the different types of research methods used in the field of social psychology;
- Explore several experimental and non-experimental methods used through social psychologists; and
- Identify the merits and demerits of the different methods of research.
- Describe attitudes;
- Differentiate flanked by attitudes, values and beliefs;

## **SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY—A WORKING DEFINITION**

The study of individual in the social context is the subject matter of the field of psychology described social psychology. Social psychologists not only try to understand the social behaviour and social influence but have urbanized several methods to measure the social phenomena like leadership, modeling, and prejudice etc. They employ several experimental as well as non-experimental methods to carry out their research in the field of social psychology. As dealing with human life and human problems, social psychologists also take care to follow the ethical code and to avoid common bias in social science research. The several definitions of social psychology

are given:

- Social psychology is the discipline that explores deeply the several characteristics of this social interaction.
- Social psychology is a branch of psychology which is concerned with the social aspect of life – how people interaction with and think in relation to the others. This branch of knowledge studies human behaviour in all its perspective which further helps in establishing equal relationships and solving social problems.
- Baron and Byrne describe social psychology as the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and causes of individual behaviour in social situations. In other words, social psychologists seek to understand how we think in relation to interact with others.
- Social psychology attempts to understand how thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of individual are influenced through actual, imagined, and implied attendance of others.
- Social psychology is the study of how people influence other people.

### **Concept of Social Psychology**

It is a truth that human actions do not take place in a vacuum. Every behaviours occur in some ‘physical context’ and most of what we do take place in the attendance of others – that is, in an interpersonal context or social context. Moreover, a considerable portion of the behaviour that individuals perform when alone is based on ‘past encounters’ with other people. Psychology studies behaviour which is a result of individual’s thoughts and feelings, but individuals thoughts and feelings are inferred from his expressed or overt behaviour. Behaviours which contain learning, problem solving, perceiving are the ‘overt behaviour’, on the other hand, behaviours like dreaming, imaging, memorizing represents ‘covert behaviour’.

There is another category of behaviour. Behaviour which is result or caused through or occurs because of others attendance or influence is described *social behaviour*. This social behaviour is of great significance to social psychology. Whenever our psychological processes of perceiving, learning, motivating, decision making etc. are influenced through or a result of or related to / or occur in a social context, these processes are described as social perception, social learning, social motivations, group conventionality respectively. These behaviours which have a social context and occur in social environment and involve social stimuli are the main subject matter of social psychology.

## **Concept of Social Behaviour**

If I ask you to create a list of all the activities which you perform from the time you get up till you sleep, you will observe that in relation to the 20% of these activities are just 'behaviours' but the remaining 80% of these are 'social behaviours'. This would create you understand social behaviour in conditions of the significance of 'others' in our life, as most of our time of the day is spent in interacting with other members of our family or society. A careful look at these 'social interaction' would create it very clear that in several of these interactions, our behaviour is influenced through others and we influence others behaviour. So our life is not only 'social' but our social interactions to a large extent are shaped, influenced and changed as a result of social influence. A major part of our behaviour occurs in a social context, as well as in an environment involving 'others'.

## **Concept of Social Interaction**

Unlike animals that come together either for progeny or protecting themselves from danger, human being is a truly social animal. Each one of us is bounded through and interacts with at least one or two individuals who are close to us. Human being live, grow and strive within the close interpersonal relationship. Several of our needs are satisfied in this social context. In satisfying the needs one establishes contacts, co-operates with other people, and adjusts with other members of the society. Actions that are performed through the individual in relation to the members of the society are described 'Social Actions and Interaction' as these actions affect two or more individuals. This results in action, social actions, and interaction. This interaction with others is described 'Social Interaction' and this social interaction is the basis for establishing lasting relationship in life. Two mechanisms underlie every social interaction, these are:

- Social interaction requires a social get in touch with or social relationship: Every social situation involves social get in touch with at least flanked by two people without which no interaction can take place. This get in touch with may be direct or indirect and can have negative and positive impact. Positive social get in touch with provides rise to pro-social behaviours like co-operation, organisation as simulation, adjustment, version, and accommodation. Negative social get in touch with may retract a person absent from entering into social interaction and even if s/he 'has to', it results in unhelpful social behaviours like unhealthy competition, aggression etc.
- Social interaction involves communication: Social interaction flanked by any two individuals involves some form of communication that is verbal or non-verbal without which the social interaction cannot take

place. As is recognized, social interaction takes place at three levels, a) Individual to individual, b) Individual to groups, and c) Group to group level.

### **Concept of Social Influence**

Each one of us depends on others to satisfy, several of our day to day needs – food, clothing, housing, love, security. This interdependence produces interaction flanked by persons. In the course of this interaction an individual is influenced through parents, friends, teachers, and they are also in turn influenced through the person. Therefore other people affect and influence our outlook, our belief our values and so on marginally or profoundly. Such influence are exerted directly and deliberately, subtly and implied. The individual behaviour is influenced through this social influence, as for instance: Sita is newly married and comes to her in-laws house in a new city. Her behaviour is more likely to be influenced through the directions g etc. which slowly do influence her husband and children. Our social life is therefore a process of mutual influence and change which enrich our relationship in a social context.

### **Scope of Social Psychology**

Social psychology concentrates on the individual behaviour in the social get in touch with, so the subject matter of social psychology is the interactions of individuals with other individuals and society. It is the social world, based upon the relations of humans to their fellow beings which furnish the subject matter of social psychology. The scope of social psychology comprises:

- Social stimuli instance: books, any situation, other people) and social incentive situations (Flag hosting, Deepawali, Christmas and Ramzan).
- Individual's reactions and experiences which arise from social situations.
- Impact of social environment on the individual social behaviour is a result of four factors:
  - Characteristics of other persons;
  - Cognitive processes;
  - Physical environment; and
  - Cultural context.
- The physical context in which an event takes place is also very crucial. For instance: when two people belonging to different cultural and ethnic group start fighting throughout the already riot prone, locality, it will get a different meaning than when the scenario occurs in a normal context.

- Each social behavior has a specific cultural context and as a result, same behaviour may be interpreted in an entirely different method. Cultural norms of each culture gives that context and so several times the behaviour would be misinterpreted through others who do not belong to that culture – instance: women not hiding their face (through their veil) in front of elders would be amounted to insulting the elders, the same behaviour would ‘pass off’ as normal in other context of urban setting.

## **SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY FOCUSES ON THE BEHAVIOR OF INDIVIDUALS**

The cognitive basis of social and person perception involves the processes through which we collect the information, process and select it and later interpret this information. But what is more significant in this information processing is the role played through our emotions, motives in distorting this information so as to suit our needs, goals, and aspirations. So the truthfulness and accuracy of the information composed in relation to the others gets distorted. The information turns out the method in which it protects one’s self esteem, leading to several bias in our attribution process, in our managing impression’s and influencing the self presentation tactics. Most importantly our basic emotional states, motives, our goal of accurate information gathering shadow our social and person perception.

We will now deal with the several biases in attributions, impression formation, categorizations which are result of these cognitive and dynamic factors.

### **Impression Formation and Management**

In forming impression in relation to the others, there are six simple and general principles:

- People form impressions of others quickly and on the basis of minimal information and go on to infer in relation to the general traits in relation to them.
- People pay attention to most salient features of a person we notice the qualities that create a person distinctive or unusual, rather than to everything.
- In processing information in relation to the people involves some coherent meaning in their behaviour and use context of a person’s behaviour to infer its meaning, rather than interpret the behaviour in isolation.
- We organize our perceptions through categorizing or grouping stimuli i.e. rather than to see each person as a separate individual, we tend to

see people as members of a group – for instance: people wearing white coat are doctors.

- We use cognitive structure to create sense of people's behaviour. If we come crossways woman doctor, we use our information in relation to the doctor more usually to infer her attributes and meaning of her behaviour.
- Perceivers own needs and personal goals influence how he or she perceives others.

### ***Why are our impressions of others sometimes wrong?***

Our impressions are sometimes wrong because of the mental shortcuts. We use when forming social judgment people are too ready to attribute other's actions to their personalities rather than to the situation. Another cause our impression can go wrong concerns our use of schemas. People use implicit personality theories to fill in the gaps in their knowledge in relation to the other people and use schemas or theories to decide why other people what they do.

### ***Why does it seem like our impression is accurate?***

Why does it seem like our impressions are accurate when as we have seen that 'our impressions can go wrong'. These are three reasons:

- First – we often see people in a limited number of situations and therefore never have the opportunity to see that our impressions are wrong.
- Second - we will not realize that our impressions are wrong if we create them come true, this is the case with self-fulfilling prophecies even if an initial impression is incorrect, we often create it come true.
- Third – we might not realize we are wrong if a lot of people agree on what someone's is like – even when everyone is wrong.

## **Impression Management (Impression Management – The Fine Art of Looking Good)**

The desire to create a favorable impression on others is a strong one so most of us do our best to look good to others when we meet them for the first time. Social psychologists use the term impression management (or self-presentation) to describe this effort to create a good impression on others and the results of their research on such efforts suggest that they are worthwhile. The different techniques for bolstering their image fall into two categories:

self enhancement – effort to augment their appeal to others and other enhancement – effort to create the target person feel good in several methods. With respect to self-enhancement, the strategies contain effort to boost one's physical appearance through style of dress, personal grooming, and the use of several props. (instance: eye glasses). Additional tactics of self enhancement involves efforts to describe oneself in positive conditions.

Turning to other enhancement, individuals use several different tactics to induce positive moods and reaction in others instance: flattery. According to William James observation, people often show different sides of themselves to different groups of people. Youngsters who are demure and obedient before their parents and teachers and may swear and swagger in the company of their friends. Most parents do not show their actual self to their children as they do to their colleagues or intimate friends. We usually talk as if there is a single self who is stable and well defined. But social psychologists consider it is more appropriate to think of self as multiple selves because people display different characteristics of themselves in different situations. Schlenker (1980) has termed this as 'impression management' and defined it as the conscious or unconscious effort to control images that are projected in real or imagined social interactions. When there images deal with some characteristics of self we call the process as self presentation.

### **Theories of Self Presentation**

Cooley (1902/1922) and Mead (1934) have put forth a theory recognized as:

- A symbolic interactionism: They have stressed that participants in social interactions try to take the role of the others and see themselves as others see them. This process helps them to know how they appear to others and also guide their social behaviour so that it has the desired effect. Through taking the role of others, a person can choose the right clothes and the right speech patterns to communicate with others. For instance: politicians and leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru and Indira Gandhi would wear the traditional dresses of the places which they visited and also spoke few words of local language.
- Theory of self presentation: Erving Goffman has drawn parallels of this behaviour to the world of theater and formulated a theory of 'self presentation in everyday life'. Goffman (1959/1967) has described social interaction as a theoretical performance in which each individual acts out "live" – a set of cautiously chosen verbal and non-verbal acts that expresses one's self. In self presentation, one of the fundamental rules of social interaction is mutual commitment i.e. all the members of the interaction use certain face-saving devices, so as to maintain a face. Through maintaining face is not the goal of the social interaction it is

rather necessary for social interaction to continue. Incidents that threaten the face of participant also threaten the survival of the relationship. So we somehow try to avert the embarrassment that might occur and threaten the relationship through overlooking through helping others apologies for the social blindness that they commit. Therefore for Goffman social interaction requires its participants to be able to regulate their self presentation and that it will be perceived and evaluated appropriately through others.

- Situated identities theory: C.N.Alexander has put forth another theory described the 'situated identities' theory. There is a pattern of social behaviour for each social setting and Alexander claimed that people strive to make the most favorable situated identities for themselves in their social encounters. For instance a college professor might aim for a highly academic identity when presenting a paper at a seminar, a somewhat more relaxed identity throughout lectures and causal and informal situated identities at a social gathering and with friends. This is simply a role a person is performing in different situations. Though a situated identity is tied much more to a specific situational context than a role is. Where role focuses on behaviours that are expected, situated identities deal more with the images one choose to project in a scrupulous social interaction. Each of the three theories of self presentation agrees that other people are forming impressions of us and are using these impressions to guide their interactions with us. Further each theory also points to diversity of tactics that individuals use to manage and control the image they present to other.

There are number of reasons why the self presentation occurs:

- One is to gain social approval: finding it pleasant to be liked through others. If you create a favorable person impression on another you may gain several benefits from that person. It serves as a means to other goals. Impression management of self representation may also allow a sense of control in a situation. Therefore combination of reasons serves as powerful motivation for the use of self presentation tactics.

### **Self Presentation Tactics**

There is a diversity of tactics that people use in presenting themselves to others Jones and Pittman (1982) have recognized five major tactics of self representation which differ according to the scrupulous attribute the person is trying to gain. They are:

- Ingratiation: This is the most common of presentation techniques and is defined as a class of strategic behaviour illicitly intended to influence a scrupulous other person concerning the attractiveness of

one's personal qualities. In other words, the main goal of the ingratiation is to be seen to be likeable. There are number of methods in accomplishing this and one of the most common tactics is to provide compliment to another person. Though a successful ingratiation knows when to compliment people and also has certain amount of credibility and sincerity. He uses his discrimination properly. Another tactics is to confirm to other person's opinions and behaviours. We tend to like people whose beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours are similar to our own. But, there is a danger here, i.e. if the other person (target) suspects ingratiation this factor does not work.

- Intimidation: Is to arouse fear in other people. This is in contrast to ingratiation. In intimidation through creating the image of dangerous person, the intimidator seeks to control and interaction through the exercise of power. Intimidation is mostly used in relationships that are non voluntary in which escape is not easily accomplished. Instance a street robber with a threat to kill if money or jewelry is not handed over. Some times parents do it with their children and also teachers with their pupils.
- Self promotion: If a person wants to show himself as competent person at some activity this is the tactics mostly used. He does this through accepting or acknowledging some of the minor flaws or weaknesses he has to target person and then go and emphasis the positive traits that the target person was not aware of him. Though, there is one danger in using self promotion. i.e. the mismatch flanked by the self promoted claims of competencies and the reality. For instance if a person claims to the target person that he is very good at some things and of that ability come upto be tested and he does not show any competencies then he loses his credibility.
- Exemplification: Here the goal is to influence the impressions that others are not conscientious workers. The person here wants to prove that he has more integrity and moral worthiness compared to others, and wants to arouse guilty in the target person. He wants to make an impression of a sufferer.
- Supplication: Here the person advertises his/ her weakness and dependent on other person. He is seeking sympathy. This is usually a last resort i.e. what a person is unable to use any other strategies, he resorts to gaining sympathy. The person is presenting an image of helplessness hoping to elicit a sense obligation from the target.

The person may use all five self presentation tactics on different occasions. So people may specialize in one or other tactic and may use it on more than one occasion. What ever choice or combination, the person's aim is to make the desired impressions someone else, there through increasing the chances of obtaining the desired effect.

## **Individual Difference in Self Presentation**

People strive to influence the images that others form of them throughout social interaction has been found to be true even through research on self presentation. Though everyone engages in such actions from time to time, there are significant differences in the extent to which they control their self presentation. Some people engage in such actions from time to time, there are significant differences in the extent to which they control their self presentation and some people engages in this tactics more often and with greater ability.

People differ in exercising control over their verbal and non-verbal cues of self presentation and this is termed as self monitoring of expressive behaviour. High self monitoring persons are particularly sensitivity to the expressions and the self presentations of others in social situation and they use these as cues in monitoring, their own self presentation for purpose of impression management. High self monitoring persons are good at learning what is socially appropriate in new situations, have good control of their emotional expression and effectively use these abilities to make the impression they want to display. In fact they can adapt themselves to any social situation, for instance: they can adopt the mannerism of a reserved, withdrawn, and introverted person and then they can abruptly do in relation to the face and portray themselves as equally convincing, friendly, outgoing, and extroverted person. In self-presentation situations, high self monitoring persons are quite likely to seek out social comparisons and information in relation to the appropriate patterns of behaviour. They put in considerable effort in attempting to read and understand others and behave accordingly and guide their self presentation so as to gain approval or power of an interaction. Though self presentation on impression management is not for deceptive purposes but is an adaptive ability in environments where there is an intricate mixture of people and policies.

**Self-presentation and Human Nature:** Self presentation is a basic fact of social life. People influence the images of their 'selves' that are projected to others but where is the 'real' self in all this? As already recognized, each of us have multiple selves which we present to different people in different methods but all of them are several characteristics of only one 'true self' self presentation factors is selecting certain characteristics and omitting other. So, presentation of self is an integral part of everyday social interaction.

## **RESEARCH METHODS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

### **Goals of Research in Social Psychology**

Social psychological research has four goals:

- **Description:** A major goal is to give careful and systematic descriptions of social behaviour that permit social psychologists to create reliable generalizations in relation to the how people act in several social settings. Instance: Are men more aggressive than women's.
- **Causal analysis:** Much research in psychology seeks to establish cause and affect relationship, because scientific inquiry in the research is to establish cause and effect relations. Instance: Does college education create students more liberal in their social attitudes.
- **Theory building:** Third goal is to develop theories in relation to the social behaviour which help social psychologists understand why people behave the method they do. This can further lead to suggest new predictions that can be tested in further research.
- **Application:** Knowledge gained through the above three effort can help to solve everyday social problems.

### **Sources of Research in Social Psychology**

Social psychology is the scientific study of social behaviour. These are a diverse range of methods accessible to social psychologists. Any research begins with a hunch or hypothesis (a tentative solution), that the researcher wants to test. There are two methods in which a researcher chooses the hypothesis.

- People often generate hypothesis from previous theories and research. Several studies stem from a researcher's dissatisfaction with existing theories and explanation. Instance: Leon Festinger was dissatisfied with 'behaviorism' to explain attitude change. He therefore formulated a new approach described the dissonance theory that made specific predictions in relation to the when and how people would change their attitude. In this method new research is continuously accepted out in order to update the existing theory.
- Theory is not the only method to derive a new hypothesis in social psychology. Researchers often observe a phenomenon in everyday life that they find curious and motivating. The researcher then constructs a theory related to that phenomenon, therefore generating new theory. Instance: The mere attendance of other person that led to better performance lead to the well-known phenomena of 'social facilitation'.

The research methods used through social psychology could be divided into two broad categories: 1) Experimental method, and 2) Non-experimental method.

## ***Experimental Methods***

An experiment involves manipulating one variable – which we call the Independent Variable (IV) and then seeing whether this has an effect on a second variable, which we refer to as the Dependent Variable (DV). To explain this, we describe an experiment mannered through Scheier and Carver (1977) in which the independent variable ‘self awareness’ was manipulated through having participants either watch themselves in a mirror or not. These two levels of self awareness high self awareness (mirror present) and low self awareness (mirror not present) formed the two experimental circumstances. The prediction was that people in the high self-awareness would show more extreme emotional responses. Participant’s self reported emotions were measured. These emotions provided the dependent variable in the experiment. The experimental method could further be divided into two sub-categories i) Laboratory method, ii) Field method.

### ***Laboratory Method***

The majority of experiments are mannered in a laboratory. In some studies, the laboratory is equipped with television, video cameras, computer monitors, microphones and other experimental apparatuses. In other cases, the laboratory is a simple room with a table and chair wherein a participant fills out a questionnaire. The benefit of conducting a laboratory experiment is that circumstances could be highly controlled. Putting it in another method, within the confines of the laboratory, everything (instance: environment, temperament, instructions given through the researcher) separately from the independent variable can be held constant. This method if changes in the independent variable are accompanied through changes in the dependent variable, we can very confidently say that the changes in the dependent variable are caused through the independent variable. Another benefit of experiments mannered in such a controlled environment is that they can be replicated, which would otherwise be more hard to make outside the laboratory. Laboratory experiments have been used to study a wide range of social phenomena and have formed the basis for a number of highly influenced theories. The *Advantages and Disadvantages* of Laboratory method are:

- Although the high degree of control over circumstances allows us to infer causality from the finding – it also creates the experiment rather artificial i.e. the experiments lacks external validity.
- Information that participants pickup from the experimental context that leads them to guess what the experimenter is predicting will happen. When this happens it will influence the ‘behaviour’ which the experimenter is looking for because the internal mental processes of the participant cannot be controlled.

- Experimenters themselves may also pose a risk to the validity of an experiment. ‘Experimenter effects’ are subtle cues or signals that is given out through an experimenter who knows the experimental hypothesis – ex: body language, eye movements, tone of voice.

### *Field Method*

Experiments are not only confined to the laboratory. They are also conducted in naturalistic settings. For instance given a situation; wherein an individual requires help, how several people come forward to help and why? Field experiments have greater external validity (not being artificial but genuine) than laboratory experiment. They are less likely to be influenced through ‘demand characteristics’ participants typically have no thought that they are taking part in a study. The Advantage and Disadvantage of Field Method are:

- The situation is not almost as controlled as in a laboratory situation and so the impact of external influences cannot be ruled out.
- It is also not possible to randomly assign participants to circumstances.

### ***Non-Experimental Methods***

Researchers have three options. They can:

- Ask research participants to report on their behaviour, thoughts or feeling – through self report.
- They can observe questioned participant directly – observation
- They can go to an archive and use data originally composed for other purposes.

Although experiments are the best method of determining cause and effect, there are several circumstances where they are practically not feasible. If we are interested to know how gender, ethnicity, or age affects behaviour, we cannot assign participants to different circumstances of an experimental method. Moreover, when social psychologists are interested to study psychological phenomenon on a broad societal level (ex: ethnic prejudice), experimental method cannot be used. In such instances a number of non-experimental methods are accessible to a social psychologist. These are: i) Observation method, ii) Archival method, iii) Case study, iv) Correlational method, and v) Survey method.

### *Observation Method*

In social psychology, the observers are trained as social scientists that set out to answer questions in relation to the scrupulous social phenomena

through observation and coding it according to a prearranged set of criteria. This method varies according to the degree to which the observer actively participates in the scene. At one extreme the observer is a non participant. S/he neither participates nor intervenes in any method as for instance: a researcher is interested in children's social behaviour may stand outside a playground to observe. Children at play in some situations, through their very nature, require observer participants, who observe, but try not to alter the situation in any method, for instance – to get to know the intricacies of certain social phenomena like rituals, cultural method. The observer can be a participant as a friend or relative. Certain behaviours are hard to observe as they occur rarely or privately. It is confined to one scrupulous group of people, setting, and activity.

### *Archival Method*

Another method that social psychologist can observe social phenomenon without conducting an experiment is to re-analyze existing data. The researcher examines the accumulated document or archives of a culture, for instance; diaries, novels, suicide notes, television shows, movies, magazines, newspaper articles, advertising, sexual violence etc. Archival analysis can tell us a great deal in relation to the society's values and beliefs. It has got two advantages. It is inexpensive and it can study the change over time frame. This is particularly useful when researches are interested in the effect of societal events on behaviours, which have occurred in the past. This research comes under 'archival research' first mannered through Hovland and Sears (1940).

### *Case Study Method*

Other non-experimental methods are field studies and case studies. Case study is a study of a scrupulous participant or a small group of participants which involve a detailed and often descriptive investigation. Instance: Behaviour of people after the earthquake.

### *Correlation Method*

In correlation studies, the researcher cautiously observers and records the relationship flanked by (or among) two or more factors technically recognized as variables. For instance: Is physical attractiveness is related to a student's popularity with other students. In a correlation design, the research does not influence the student's behaviour in any method but merely records information. The hallmark of an experimental design is intervention – with putting people in controlled situation or have confederates. Correlation research asks if there is an association flanked by the variables and whether

this association is high (+ve) or low (-ve) or neutral (no correlation). Instance: whether or not watching violence on television is related to aggressive behaviour. The *Advantages and Disadvantage* of Correlational method is:

- Correlation designs enable research to study problems in which intervention is impossible.
- This design is efficient. It allows research to collect more information and relationship.
- No clear cut proof of cause and effect

### *Survey Method*

It is a research method that involves asking participants to respond to a series of questions, through interviews or questionnaires. Poll survey, marketing survey are the best examples. Surveys can be administered to a large, sample with relative ease and at little expense because surveys are gathered from large numbers and researchers can be sure of its genuinity. The downside to questionnaire is that if they are not very cautiously intended they can be misinterpreted through participants. There are also a number of response biases that participants have a tendency to blindly agree with positively worded questions and regularly fail to use the full range of possible responses like 'I don't know' etc.

## **OTHER RESEARCH METHODS**

As psychology advanced and become global, and started focusing on cross cultural social phenomena, this method became a very significant method.

### *Cross Cultural Method*

It has two goals (i) demonstrates that a scrupulous psychological process or law is universe and it operates the same method in all human being crossways several cultures. (ii) explore the differences among human beings, through examining how culture influences the basic social psychological process.

### *Research Through Internet*

Recently social psychology has started to conduct research using the internet. The internet offers many advantages to researchers.

- Internet creates it easier to recruit participants who come from diverse background distant geographic regions or specific group.
- The information composed from the participants is automatically recorded. This increases efficiency of data collection.
- Internet research is less expensive.
- Internet chat rooms and bulletin boards give a rich sample of human social behaviour, where people discuss current social issues or hobbies on the online forums and study several topics including communication, prejudice, and spread of new ideas. In research:
  - Same subjects can participate in several studies more than once
  - The identity, responses in a frivolous and malicious manner.

- Impossible to monitor participant's behaviour or undesirable distractions.

## **Research Ethics**

Regardless of the method used to conduct research in social psychology, because it involves people, social psychologist needs to be aware of a number of ethical issues. To ensure that research is not physically or psychologically harmful to participants, in 1972, the American Psychological Association suggested a set of principles for ethical conduct to guide the conduction of research.

### ***Participant Welfare***

It is essential that the physical and psychological welfare of participant is protected. Although it is not too hard to determine the extent of physical harm to the participants, it is indeed hard to determine the extent of psychological harm. Some experiments may leave a negative psychological impact (fear, stress, anxiety) for instance: Eliciting anger may for instance lead to temporarily depressed self esteem. So efforts should be made to ensure that the negative psychological impact should be inconsequential and short lived.

### ***Deception***

In order to avoid the problem caused through 'demand characteristics' or subjective bias. It is significant that participant is not aware of the aim of the study Milgram (1963) deceived participants through making them consider that they were really administering electric shocks. This was necessary to gauge the participant's reactions. Several other experiments use confederates – someone who is a participant but who is actually an actor instructed through the experimenter in order to test a scrupulous hypothesis. Though, most deception is of a trivial nature, and the participants are told the full purpose of the experiment after completion and there is no proof that deception causes long term harm.

### ***Confidentiality***

Participants in social psychology research are often required to disclose information of a personal or intimate nature. To reassure participants that this information will not be used against them in any method social psychologists need to inform participants that data derived from their participation will be totally confidential. Therefore the anonymity of participants is also usually

safeguarded through identifying them with a 'number' (roll number) rather than name.

### ***Informed consent and debriefing***

It is a well recognized practice to obtain informed consent from individuals prior to their participation in a study. The participants give their full and voluntary consent in writing or they can withdraw from the experiment. After the experiment, participants need to be fully debriefed, this involve telling them the true purpose of the experiment. It provides experimenters the opportunity to demonstrate the importance and relevance of the research and the participants an opportunity to contribute to the genuine cause to the field (of social psychology) research. One of the significant risks is the invasion of privacy, which should be respected and valued. The researcher who studies sensitive topics as sex, drug, alcohol use, illegal behaviour, religion, beliefs. Necessity be protected the risk involved minimal, should be – possible risk for the participants in the research should not be greater than those ordinals encountered in daily life.

## **BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES**

### **Defining Attitudes**

The study of attitudes has been at the forefront of social psychology for several years. Attitude field is vast and diverse accumulating over 80-plus years. The study of attitudes has been a core topic in social psychology. Attitudes are involved in practically every other area of the discipline, including social perception, interpersonal attraction, prejudice, and discrimination, conventionality, compliance, and so on. The chief cause why the concept of attitude is so central to psychology is because the aim of psychology is to study behaviour, and attitudes are *supposed to* influence behaviour. Let us first try to understand what exactly an attitude is. Early on attitudes were defined very broadly. Allport (1935) defined attitude as

- “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, and exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related”.

With such a broad definition it is easy to see why attitudes were seen as the central construct of social psychology. Since Allport, the definition of attitude has evolved considerably and become narrower. Attitudes are now looked as evaluative statements— either favorable or unfavorable- concerning some aspect of the social world. For instance, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) describe an attitude as:

“a learned predisposition to respond in a uniformly favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object”.

“Object” comprises people, things, events, and issues. When you use such words as like, dislike, love, hate, good, bad, yuck, etc. you are describing your attitudes. In this view, attitudes then are evaluations of a scrupulous person, group, action, or thing. A similar definition was proposed through Eagly and Chaiken (1993), according to whom:

- “Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed through evaluating a scrupulous entity with some degree of favor or disfavor”.

Therefore an attitude is focused on a scrupulous entity or object, rather than all objects and situation with which it is related. Psychologists use specialized conditions to describe certain classes of attitudes. For e.g., an attitude towards the self is described *self-esteem*, negative attitudes towards specific groups are described *prejudice*, attitudes towards individuals are described *interpersonal attraction*, and attitude towards own job is described *job satisfaction*. Simply defined, attitudes are usually positive or negative views of a person (including one) place, thing, or event (the attitude object).

## **Attitudes, Values And Beliefs**

There are two psychological constructs closely associated with attitudes: values and beliefs.

### ***Attitudes and Values***

The most regularly cited definition of what constitutes a human value is offered through Rokeach (1973) as an “enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of subsistence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of subsistence”. Values constitute a significant aspect of self-concept and serve as guiding principles for an individual. Rokeach argued that, measured together, values form values systems where a value system is “an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable manners of conduct or end-states of subsistence beside a continuum of importance”. Therefore the importance of different values should co-vary with the importance of others in the value system. For e.g. you may value ‘honesty’ over ‘successes. Human values are strongly prescriptive in nature and form the core approximately which other less enduring beliefs are organized. As such they are significant in a range of other processes, like attitudes. It is contended that the formation of specific attitudes is predicated upon more general values. Values indirectly influence behaviour through their influence on attitudes.

Although values *can* shape attitudes, it does not though mean that values shape *all* attitudes. For e.g. your attitude towards say love versus arranged marriage is almost certainly shaped through your values, but your preference for one brand of toothpaste over another is less likely to be influenced through significant life goals. It is clear that some attitudes are formed through the influence of long-standing values internalized early in life. These are described symbolic attitudes, because the attitude object is a symbol of something else. In contrast, there are some attitudes that are based on utility, a direct benefits and costs of the attitude object. These are described instrumental attitudes, because they are instrumental to meet those needs. Interestingly the same attitude object could serve a symbolic or an instrumental need. For e.g. your decision to eat only vegetarian food could be based on utility (if you stay in a place like Europe or America where it is more hard to get vegetarian food) or taste-instrumentally based attitudes— versus thoughts of animal rights and right to live-symbolically based values.

Values are relatively more stable and enduring than attitudes, since they are basic notions in relation to the right and wrong. Attitudes are less stable than values. Further, if we know an individual's values, we are better able to predict his behaviour in a scrupulous situation.

### ***Attitudes and Beliefs***

Beliefs are cognitions in relation to the probability that an object or event is associated with a given attribute. Some theorists regard belief as one component of an attitude. Though, there are differences flanked by attitude and belief. Attitude can be measured as the sum of beliefs. A person can have several beliefs in relation to the phenomenon (positive and negative). This person will have an attitude toward that phenomenon based on the overall evaluation of her beliefs. For e.g. I may consider that Pepsi is sweet; it contains preservatives; it is high on calories (belief); I like Pepsi (Attitude). According to Eagly and Chaiken (1993), it is possible to verify or falsify some beliefs (at least) using external criteria. For e.g. the belief that water freezes at 0 degree Celsius can be verified either factually or even through agreement among several individuals; yet few attitudes can be 'tested' using such interjudge consensus. Most social attitudes, such as political, aesthetic, or consumer preferences are largely variable crossways people. You may like Pepsi; your friend may not like it at all! Both beliefs and values are central to the dynamic forces that form and transform existing attitudes.

### **ATTITUDE FORMATION**

Right from our birth onwards, we are exposed to a wide diversity of stimuli, both directly and indirectly, which lead to our acquiring scrupulous attitudes towards the attitudinal object. It is whispered that attitudes are through and large acquired as a result of several life experiences, although a

small but rising body of proof designates that attitudes may be influenced through genetic factors, too. A number of theories have been used to identify what lead to formation and maintenance of attitudes.

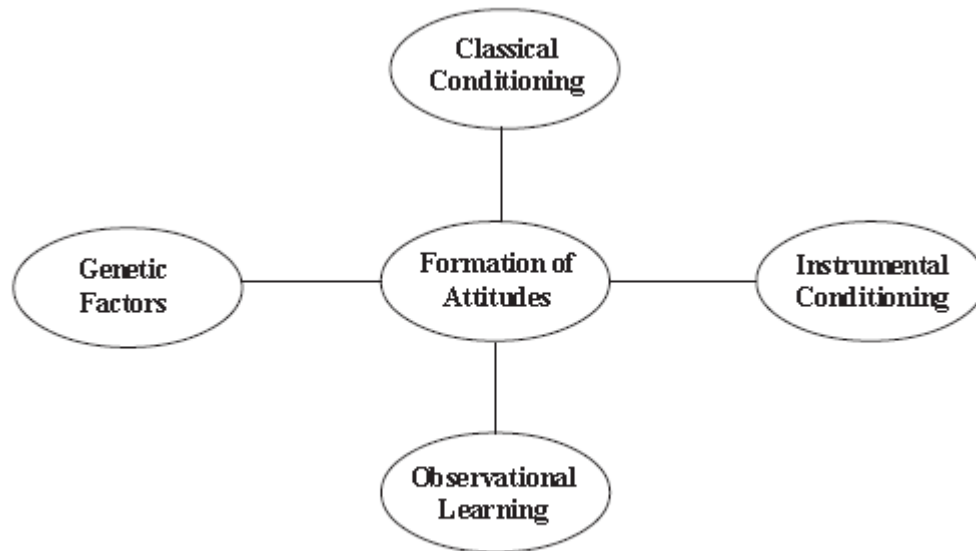


**Fig. Perspectives to attitude formation**

### **Classical Conditioning**

The process of classical conditioning was first described through Pavlov. In his experiments on dogs, he found that after repeated pairings of an unconditioned incentive (e.g. bell) with a conditioned incentive (dog), the latter acquires the capability to evoke a conditioned response (salivation), similar to the old, unconditioned response (salivation). It has been suggested that in the same method that a bell can evoke a physiological response, classical conditioning can produce a positive/negative attitude towards a previously neutral object. Arthur and Carolyn Staats (1958) were two of the first researchers who systematically studied the classical conditioning of attitudes. They mannered an experiment in which the goal was to condition positive and negative attitudes to the names of countries (Sweden and Holland) which previously were regarded neither positively nor negatively. Throughout 108 conditioning trials, two nationalities were always followed through a negative word (e.g. failure), two were paired with positive adjectives (e.g. happy, gift), and two others were paired with neutral words (e.g. table). At the end of the experiment, it was indeed found that participants held more positive attitudes towards the nationalities associated with positive words and more negative attitudes toward those associated with negative words.

Classical conditioning could play a role in establishing some of the

emotional components of attitudes and prejudice. Further, through classical conditioning, people may come to have powerful attitudinal reactions to social objects even in the absence of firsthand experience. Hence, children who hear repeated pairings of words in their parents' conversations (such as say, Muslims-Aggressive, Muslims-Fundamentalists) throughout their early years of development may come to adopt such negative attitudes themselves—without even meeting them.

### **Instrumental Conditioning**

Child: “Mummy, doesn’t *Mausi* look nice in her green dress? She really knows how to carry herself.” Mother: “You are absolutely right dear. I’ve felt that for some time now and was hoping you would agree. Your dress sense is really getting evolved. You can now suggest me what to wear the after that time we go out.” This kind of conversation illustrates quite clearly the role of reinforcement in attitude formation. Following her mother’s agreement, it is likely that the child’s initial responses of a positive attitude in relation to the *Mausi* will be reinforced. Of course, had the child remarked that *Mausi* looks awful; the mother might have reacted with displeasure, thereby punishing the remark. Following reward, the child’s attitude is likely to be strengthened; whereas punishment would almost certainly lead to a weakening of the attitude.

This is the process of instrumental conditioning, a basic form of learning studied through Thorndike (1911) and Skinner (1938). According to this, behaviours that are followed through positive outcomes tend to be strengthened, while those that are followed through negative outcomes are suppressed. The degree to which attitudes are verbally or nonverbally reinforced through others will affect the acquiring and maintenance of attitudes. For e.g. early in your life, if your parents and teachers praised you for doing well in studies, you may have doubled your efforts and urbanized a positive attitude towards studies. Though if your friend’s parents did not acknowledge her achievements in studies, she would have almost certainly urbanized a negative attitude toward studies.

### **Observational Learning**

In both classical and instrumental conditioning approaches to attitude formation, the person has direct get in touch with or experience (as in the case of Staats experiment) with the attitudinal object. Though, it is also true that people may acquire attitudes simply through observing the rewards and punishments that others get for their espousal of those attitudes. The phenomenon through which a person acquires new forms of behaviour or

thought simply through observing others is described observational learning. For instance, you might develop a negative attitude towards the college canteen if you saw someone throwing up after having a meal there. Although your friend's newly formed dislike is due to instrumental conditioning, your negative attitude is a result of observational learning. The rationale behind commercials of say, Pizza Hut which show someone ordering and then obviously enjoying a pizza is that the viewer will also form a positive attitude vicariously and imitate such behaviour in the future.

### **Genetic Factors**

Some research designates that our attitudes, at least a tendency to develop certain views in relation to the various topics or issues, are inherited. For instance, Arvey et al. (1989) studied the level of job satisfaction of 34 sets of identical twins separated from each other at an early age, and found that almost 30% of job satisfaction appears to be explainable through genetic factors. Tesser (1993) has argued that hereditary variables may affect attitudes— but believes that they may do so indirectly. Additional research suggests that genetic factors play a stronger role in shaping some attitudes than others. For e.g., attitudes involving gut-level preferences (say a preference for a certain kind of food) may be more strongly influenced through genetic factors than attitudes that are more cognitive in nature (say attitudes towards environment conservation).

## **ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT**

Several measurements and scales are used to examine attitudes. Attitudes can be hard to measure because measurement is arbitrary, meaning people have to provide attitudes a scale to measure it against, and attitudes are ultimately a hypothetical construct that cannot be observed directly. Following the explicit-implicit dichotomy, attitudes can be examined through direct and indirect measures.

### **Explicit Measurements**

Explicit measures tend to rely on self-reports or easily observed behaviors. These tend to involve bipolar scales (e.g., good-bad, favorable-unfavorable, support-oppose, etc.). Explicit measures can also be used through measuring the straightforward attribution of characteristics to nominate groups, such as "I feel that baptists are....?" or "I think that men are...?" Likert scales and other self-reports are also commonly used.

## **Implicit Measurements**

Implicit measures are not consciously directed and are assumed to be automatic, which may create implicit measures more valid and reliable than explicit measures (such as self-reports). For instance, people can be motivated such that they find it socially desirable to appear to have certain attitudes. An instance of this is that people can hold implicit prejudicial attitudes, but express explicit attitudes that report little prejudice. Implicit measures help account for these situations and look at attitudes that a person may not be aware of or want to show. Implicit measures so usually rely on an indirect measure of attitude. For instance, the Implicit Association Test (IAT) examines the strength flanked by the target concept and an attribute element through considering the latency in which a person can examine two response keys when each has two meanings. With little time to cautiously examine what the participant is doing they respond according to internal keys. This priming can show attitudes the person has in relation to the scrupulous object.

## **ATTITUDE CHANGE**

Attitudes are the evaluations and associated beliefs and behaviors towards some object. They are not stable, and because of the communication and behavior of other people, are subject to change through social influences, as well as an individual's motivation to maintain cognitive consistency when cognitive dissonance occurs--when two attitudes or when attitude and behavior conflict. Attitudes and attitude objects are functions of affective and cognitive components. It has been suggested that the inter-structural composition of an associative network can be altered through the activation of a single node. Therefore, through activating an affective or emotion node, attitude change may be possible, though affective and cognitive components tend to be intertwined.

### **Bases for attitude change**

There are three bases for attitude change, which comprises compliance, identification, and internalization. These three processes represent the different levels of attitude change.

#### ***Compliance***

Compliance refers to a change in behavior based on consequences, such as an individual's hopes to gain rewards or avoid punishment from another group or person. The individual does not necessarily experience changes in beliefs or evaluation towards an attitude object, but rather is influenced through the social outcomes of adopting a change in behavior. The individual is also often

aware that he or she is being urged to respond in a certain method.

Compliance was demonstrated through a series of laboratory experiments recognized as the Asch experiments. Experiments led through Solomon Asch of Swarthmore College asked groups of students to participate in a "vision test". In reality, all but one of the participants was confederates of the experimenter, and the study was really in relation to the how the remaining student would react to the confederates' behavior. Participants were asked to pick, out of three line options, the line that is the same length as a sample and were asked to provide the answer out loud. Unbeknown to the participants, Asch had placed a number of confederates to deliberately provide the wrong answer before the participant. The results showed that 75% of responses were in line with majority influence and were the same answers the confederates picked. Variations in the experiments showed that compliance rates increased as the number of confederates increased, which plateaus at approximately 15 confederates. Also, minority opposition, such as if even one confederate gave the correct answer, the likelihood of compliance drops. The basis for compliance is founded on the fundamental thought that people want to be accurate and right.

### ***Identification***

Identification explains one's change of beliefs and affects in order to be similar to someone who one admires or likes. In this case, the individual adopts the new attitude, not due to the specific content of the attitude object, but more so because it is associated with the desired relationship. Often, children's attitudes on race, or their political party affiliations are adopted from their parents' attitudes and beliefs.

### ***Internalization***

Internalization refers to the change in beliefs and affect when one finds the content of the attitude to be intrinsically rewarding, and therefore leading to actual change in beliefs or evaluation towards an attitude object. The new attitude or behavior is constant with the individual's value system, and tends to be merged with the individual's existing values and beliefs. So, behavior adopted through internalization is due to the content of the attitude object.

The Expectancy-value theory is based on internalization of attitude change. This model describes the states that the behavior towards some object is a function of an individual's intent, which is a function of one's overall attitude towards the action.

### **Emotion-based attitude change**

Emotion plays a major role in persuasion, social influence, and attitude change. Much of attitude research has emphasized the importance of affective

or emotion components. Emotion works hand-in-hand with the cognitive process, or the method we think, in relation to the issue or situation. Emotional appeals are commonly found in advertising, health campaigns, and political messages. Recent examples contain no-smoking health campaigns and political campaign advertising emphasizing the fear of terrorism. This type of attitude change based on emotions can be seen vividly in serial killers who are faced with major stress.

Significant factors that influence the impact emotion appeals contain self efficacy, attitude accessibility, issue involvement, and message/source features. Attitudes that is central to one's being and highly resistant to change while others that are less fixed may change with new experiences or information. A new attitude (e.g. to time-keeping or absenteeism or quality) may challenge existing beliefs or norms so creating a feeling of psychological discomfort recognized as cognitive dissonance. It is hard to measure attitude change since attitudes may only be inferred and there might be important divergence flanked by those publicly declared and privately held. Self efficacy is a perception of one's own human agency; in other words, it is the perception of our own skill to deal with a situation. It is a significant variable in emotion appeal messages because it dictates a person's skill to deal with both the emotion and the situation. For instance, if a person is not self-efficacious in relation to their skill to impact the global environment, they are not likely to change their attitude or behaviour in relation to the global warming.

Affective forecasting, otherwise recognized as intuition or the prediction of emotion, also impacts attitude change. Research suggests that predicting emotions is a significant component of decision making, in addition to the cognitive processes. How we feel in relation to the outcome may override purely cognitive rationales. In conditions of research methodology, the challenge for researchers is measuring emotion and subsequent impacts on attitude. Since we cannot see into the brain, several models and measurement tools have been constructed to obtain emotion and attitude information. Measures may contain the use of physiological cues like facial expressions, vocal changes, and other body rate measures. For instance, fear is associated with raised eyebrows, increased heart rate and augments body tension. Other methods contain concept or network mapping, and using primes or word cues.

### **Dual models: Depth of Processing in Attitude Change**

Several dual process models are used to explain the affective (emotional) and cognitive processing and interpretations of messages, as well as the different depths of attitude change. These contain the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic-systematic model of information processing.

#### ***Heuristic-Systematic Model of Information Processing***

The Heuristic-Systematic Model of Information Processing describes two

depths in the processing of attitude change, which comprises systematic processing and heuristic processing. In this model information is either processed in a high-involvement and high-effort systematic method, or information is processed through shortcuts recognized as *heuristics*. For instance, emotions are affect-based heuristics, in which feelings and gut-feeling reactions are often used as shortcuts.

### ***Systematic processing***

Systematic processing occurs when individuals are motivated and have high cognition to process a message. Individuals using systematic processing are motivated to pay attention and have the cognitive skill to think deeply in relation to the message; they are persuaded through the content of the message, such as the strength or logic of the argument. Motivation can be determined through several factors, such as how personally relevant the topic is, and cognitive skill can be determined through how knowledgeable an individual is on the message topic, or whether or not there is a distraction in the room. Individuals who receive a message through systematic processing usually lead to internalization, and therefore resulting in longer and more stable attitude change.

According to the Heuristic-Systematic Model of Information Processing, people are motivated to use systematic processing when they want to achieve a "desired level of confidence" in their judgments. There are factors that have been found to augment the use of systematic processing, which these factors are associated with either decreasing an individual's actual confidence or increasing an individual's perceived confidence. These factors may contain framing of persuasive messages in an unexpected manner; self-relevancy of the message.

Systematic processing has been shown to be beneficial in social influence settings. Systematic reasoning has been shown to be successful in producing more valid solutions throughout group discussions and greater solution accuracy. Shestowsky's (1998) research in dyad discussions revealed that the individual in the dyad who had high motivation and high need in cognition had the greater impact on group decisions.

### ***Heuristic processing***

Heuristic processing occurs when individuals have low motivation and/or low cognitive skill to process a message. Instead of focusing on the argument of the message, recipients using heuristic processing focus on more readily accessible information and other non-content cues, such as the authority or attractiveness of the speaker. Individuals who process a message through heuristic processing does not result in internalization, and therefore any attitude change resulting from the persuasive message is temporary and unstable.

For instance, people are more likely to grant favors if reasons were

provided. For instance, a study shows that when people asked, “Excuse me, I have five pages to xerox. May I use the copier?” held a positive response of 60% whereas, “Excuse me; I have five pages to xerox. I am in a rush. May I use the copier?” held a 95% success rate.

Heuristic processing examples contain social proof, reciprocity, authority, and liking.

- Social proof is through the means where we utilize other people’s behaviors in order to form own beliefs. Our attitudes change towards in following the majority’s response when a situation is uncertain or ambiguous to us, when the source is an expert, or when the source is similar to us. In a study mannered through Sherif, he exposed the power of crowds when he worked with experimenters who looked up in the middle of New York City. As the number of the precipitating group increased, the percentage of pass-byers who looked up as well increased.
- Reciprocity is to return a favor someone has done. People are more likely to return a favor if he or she has a positive attitude towards the opposing party. Reciprocities also develop interdependence and societal bonds.
- Authority plays a role in attitude change in situations where there are superior-inferior relationships. We are more likely to become obedient to authorities due to factors such as the authority's expertise and potential rewards we may receive. A well-known study that constitutes the difference in attitude change is the Milgram experiment, where people changed their attitudes to “shocking their partner” more so when they followed authorities whereas the subjects themselves would have not done so otherwise.
- Liking has shown that if one likes an opposite party, the individual is more inclined to carry out a favor. The attitude changes are based on whether an individual likes a thought or person, and if he or she does not like the opposite party, he/she may not carry out the favor or do so out of obligation. Liking can influence one's opinions through factors such as physical attractiveness, similarities, compliments, and get in touch with and cooperation.

### ***Elaboration Likelihood Model***

The Elaboration Likelihood Model is similar in concept to and share several ideas with other dual processing models, such as the Heuristic-Systematic Model of Information Processing. In the Elaboration Likelihood Model, cognitive processing is the central route and affective/emotion processing is often associated with the peripheral route. The central route pertains to an elaborate cognitive processing of information while the peripheral route relies on cues or feelings. The ELM suggests that true attitude

change only happens through the central processing route that incorporates both cognitive and affective components as opposed to the more heuristics-based peripheral route. This suggests that motivation through emotion alone will not result in an attitude change.

## **THEORY OF COGNITIVE DISSONANCE**

Cognitive dissonance, a theory originally urbanized through Festinger, is the thought that people experience a sense of guilt or uneasiness when two connected cognitions are inconsistent, such as when there are two conflicting attitudes in relation to the topic, or inconsistencies flanked by one's attitude and behavior on a certain topic. The basic thought of the Cognitive Dissonance Theory relating to attitude change, is that people are motivated to reduce dissonance which can be achieved through changing their attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors (action). Cooper & Fazio's (1984) have also added that cognitive dissonance does not arise from any simple cognitive inconsistency, but rather results from freely chosen behavior that may bring in relation to the negative consequences. These negative consequences may be threats to the consistency, stability, predictability, competence, moral goodness of the self-concept, or violation of general self-integrity.

Research has suggested multiple routes that cognitive dissonance can be reduced. Self-affirmation has been shown to reduce dissonance, though it is not always the mode of choice when trying to reduce dissonance. When multiple routes are accessible, it has been found that people prefer to reduce dissonance through directly altering their attitudes and behaviors rather than through self-affirmation. People who have high levels of self-esteem, who are postulated to possess abilities to reduce dissonance through focusing on positive characteristics of the self, have also been found to prefer modifying cognitions, such as attitudes and beliefs, over self-affirmation. A simple instance of cognitive dissonance resulting in attitude change would be when a heavy smoker learns that his sister died young from lung cancer due to heavy smoking as well, this individual experiences conflicting cognitions: the desire to smoke, and the knowledge that smoking could lead to death and a desire not to die. In order to reduce dissonance, this smoker could change his behavior (i.e. stop smoking), change his attitude in relation to the smoking (i.e. smoking is harmful), or retain his original attitude in relation to the smoking and modify his new cognition to be constant with the first one--"I also work out so smoking won't be harmful to me". Therefore, attitude change is achieved when individuals experience feelings of uneasiness or guilt due to cognitive dissonance, and actively reduce the dissonance through changing their attitude, beliefs, or behavior relating in order to achieve consistency with the inconsistent cognitions.

## **REVIEW QUESTIONS**

- Describe the conditions social behaviour, social interaction, and social influence and explain their relation to the concept of social psychology.
- Enumerate the goals of researches and its sources.
- What is an experimental method? Describe the types of experimental methods.
- What are the non-experimental methods? Mention the types of nonexperimental methods and describe in detail any one method, critically examining its merits and demerits.
- Explain the cognitive and motivational basis of social and person perception and in detail describe the bias in attribution.
- Why attitude is measured the central construct of social psychology?
- Differentiate flanked by attitudes and values.
- What are the components of attitudes? Provide an instance to substantiate your statement

## **CONFORMITY: CLASSICAL STUDIES**

### **STRUCTURE**

- Learning objectives
- Muzafer Sherif studies of norm formation
- S.E. Asch's studies of group pressure
- Milgram's obedience experiment
- Interpersonal attraction and altruism
- Similarity and complementarity
- Physical attractiveness
- Sociometry
- Communication
- Review questions

### **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Explain the sheriff studies
- Explain the experiments of Asch;
- Identify the salient features of Asch's experiment; and
- Understand the Milgram's experiment

- Understand the interpersonal attraction and altruism
- Explain the communication

## **MUZAFER SHERIF STUDIES OF NORM FORMATION**

In 1936, Sherif reports a concern for the dramatic changes in social life associated with the '30s in America, the rise of totalitarian governments in Europe, widespread hunger and starvation, oppression of the powerless and the mobilization of mobs through political sloganeering. He suggested "the study of such unstable situations of oppression, hunger, and insecurity and their psychological consequences demand careful attention from social psychologists...especially in our time of transition" (1936:193). Again - "when social life becomes hard...the equilibrium of life ceases to be stable and the air is pregnant with possibilities...Such a delicate, unstable situation is the fertile soil for the rise of doubts concerning the existing norms, and a challenge to their authority" (1936:85). Sherif was preoccupied with the significant tensions in society that arose throughout the Depression.

When the normal historical patterns of interaction break down, people spontaneously evolve their own norms - i.e. standards of behaviour that regulate the conduct of individuals. Norms are patterns of action which people feel compelled to subscribe to because they appear to be appropriate, moral or ethical.

- The Problem: to re-produce in the lab how norms could be seen to be evolving in society
- The Question: what will the individual do when the individual is placed in situation where the environment cannot be defined objectively?
- The Design: Use of the Autokinetic effect - an optical illusion produced when people are exposed to a pinpoint of light in a darkened room - "auto-kinesis" means that it appears to be self-moving or unstable because the darkness gives no frame to capture and stabilize the light source.
- Ss are placed in a dark room; Sherif instructs them that a light will appear and that it will move approximately (expectation effects?)
- a tiny point of light is projected onto a screen and the Ss are instructed to push an electrical key to signal when they perceive the movement

What was measured? the perceived "displacement" or "movement" of the light estimated in inches

### **Procedures: 3 circumstances**

- Subjects run alone - 100 trials throughout 4 separate blocks (400 estimates in all)

- Subject run alone throughout first block then moved into a group with other Ss for the remaining three blocks
- Subjects in Groups throughout first three blocks then run alone

## **Results**

- When individuals perceive movement which lack any other standard for comparison, they establish a subjective range of response limits - a normative range specific to each individual which remains stable for that individual
- Ss were all run alone in the first block, then put into groups with 2 other Ss for the after that three blocks. Throughout the second block (i.e. the first group session), the estimates began to converge. They became increasingly similar throughout the after that two group sessions - in other words, individuals adopted estimates that tended to cluster approximately the same mean the longer they interacted.
- When Ss were put into groups with 1 or 2 others, the judgments of light displacement converged virtually from the very first few estimates - in these designs the Ss were required to provide their estimates out loud in constant turn taking over each of the 100 estimates in 3 consecutive sessions. In other words, they adopted a norm from the start which they all employed commonly. When tested alone, they retain the group estimates.

## **Conclusions**

- In groups making judgments about ambiguous stimuli (the autokinetic effect), there is a convergence towards a norm which then determines the subsequent individual choices
- Ss did not report any conscious effort to follow the others. They reported that the displacement appeared to naturally behave the method the group was beginning to report it.

## **Remarks**

- The cause-effect relationship here is quite ambiguous. The more the people interact with one another, the more they converge in their definition of reality. But what is the cause here? Is it time? experience? What is the underlying process? Time is not a cause of anything - it merely marks that fact that changes are occurring not what is causing them.
- The Ss also claimed that the incentive was ambiguous: "Darkness left no guide for aloofness. It was hard to estimate the aloofness...There

was no fixed point from which to judge the aloofness" (1936:97). Significantly, Sherif acknowledges that "the effect takes place even when the person looking at the light knows perfectly well that the light is not moving" (1936:92). How could this be a "norm" when people "knew" differently from what they "saw"?

At any rate, group pressure mediates how the world is perceived and defined, even if this study doesn't tell us exactly how this is occurring.

## **S.E. ASCH'S STUDIES OF GROUP PRESSURE**

Solomon Asch contributed a classic study of group influence on the individual. His work appeared after the Second World War. Where Sherif stressed how subjects were influenced through the group outlook, Asch was interested in the grounds of resistance to group pressure. In the introduction to his work, Asch reviewed the enormously significant issue of propaganda which had been so influential in mobilizing the German and Italian populations throughout the second world war to support the war effort, and which, in the German case, promoted racial hatred resulting in genocide. For Asch it was significant to identify the grounds for resisting such evil influence.

The immediate objective was to make laboratory circumstances in which the Ss were asked to agree to views which were obviously contrary to fact - and to determine the circumstances in which Ss resisted the majority errors.

Procedure:

- The Experiment involved a "Line Discrimination Task". Eight Ss met together in groups. Each individual was shown a series of cardboard displays with lines of different sizes. They were asked to match these lines to one of three lines on a standard chart. Each S made an estimate - all 8 people out loud in a turn taking procedure - then the procedure was repeated with each new incentive line. The key manipulation was that sometimes one of the Ss patently disagreed with the majority.

Main features of the Experiment

- The Ss have two sources of information - what they can see with their own eyes and what they hear the others reporting
- Both sources of information were present simultaneously
- The public declaration made the inconsistencies highly obvious
- According to Asch, the Ss appeared quite spontaneous and natural - i.e. the Ss were surprised and alarmed at their inconsistencies

## **Basic Procedure**

18 trials of the match making task. 12 of the trials were designated as "critical trials". While there were 8 people in the group, in fact 7 were

'confederates' of the experimenter, graduate student assistants. In the 12 critical trials, they deliberately responded incorrectly - making the real remaining S the lone person at variance with the majority.

## Results

- Taking the critical group as a whole, there was a clear movement toward the majority view - the incorrect view. Specifically, about one-third of the critical estimates (not estimators) through real Ss were either identical to the Majority Error, or in the direction of the Error. The optimistic view is that two-thirds of the estimates on the critical trials were correct despite external pressure. In the control group, the Confederates responded correctly in the line matching task. Here only two guesses through real Ss were in error.
- There appears to have been extra ordinary individual difference among the conduct of the real Ss. One-quarter never were swayed through the majority view, never made any errors. But about one-third were swayed in 50% or more of their trials. This led Asch to explore the personal characteristics of those who tended to be either "Independents" or "Yielders". These ideas were pulled together following the de-briefing of the Ss.

### Among the Independents:

- Independence based on a strong self confidence about perceptions and experiences. Vigorously resisted the pressure from others often through making their choices recognized in a loud and assertive voice - as though the others had got the job wrong.
- A second posture was that Ss became clearly withdrawn from the group, as though they were withholding their emotional investment in the group - to some extent neutralizing the costs of disagreement
- The last posture was one of grave uncertainty. These people resisted the pressure but exhibited obvious nervousness, tension, self doubt and anxiety.

### Among the Yielders:

- Distortion of Perception. Ss reported that they came to consider that what the others said was accurate. I'm not sure in relation to this - it reminds me of Leon Levy's study of verbal conditioning where the Ss who were told the point of the experiment denied being so told. Here the de-briefing seems to overlook the possibility that the Ss are merely telling a lie to repair a lie - and so ensure the integrity of the experiment. Another point, unless the lines were self-evidently different, no inference could be drawn about group pressure since

mistakes or confusions could happen naturally - but the discrimination task was intended to create the differences appear self apparent.

- Several Ss doubted their own self perception and decided that they would "go-beside" with the majority since the majority, because it was superior, would be more reliable. Others said that perhaps they had missed some of the instructions and didn't understand but that surely the other 7 had paid more attention.
- And finally some Ss admitted that they were afraid of being different, afraid of standing out from the crowd, and being viewed as inferior.

Asch abandoned the quasi-clinical post hoc line of explanation since it seemed to point in the direction of personality differences - which it does - and which may simply lead to tautological explanations. I.E. people "cave-in" because they have yielding personalities. What was the proof of the personality?- the outcome! Any independent measure of that personality? No. If not, the explanation is circular or tautological. Effects of Group Structure:

- Asch explored
  - the effect of partners
  - group size and
  - size of the group error

Partners:

- The Ally. In further variations of the experiment, Asch introduced circumstances in which the lone S would have an ally. In the first instance, 2 real Ss were used - one in the 4th and one in the 8th position. In the critical trials, the level of aggregate errors dropped to 10.4%. In another difference, a confederate in the 4th position always chose correctly - and the real S in the 8th position was obviously assisted through this. Here the errors dropped to 5.5%. (vs 32% in the basic design) So, he concluded that minimum human support erodes the pressure of the majority.
- The Withdrawal of the Ally. In another difference, the conduct of the supporting ally was manipulated. Again, real Ss appeared in the 8th position, the confederate in the 4th. Half method through the trials, the confederate goes with the erroneous majority position - and as a result the real S loses courage. Errors jump from 5.5% to 28% of all estimates given - approximately as high as the basic design.
- The Late Ally. In a third difference, Asch introduces a confederate ally who begins to support the real S half method through the critical tests. Here the errors drop from 32% to 8%. Though, those who had been most conforming ignored the late ally and continue with the majority. A change would have made their prior behaviour appear to be erroneous, so they ignore the ally and act in a cognitively constant method.

- The Compromise Ally. Again in this design, the Ss are in the 8th position, the confederate is in the 4th. In this design, the group as a whole chooses the line least constant with correct line. The ally chooses the after that closest - but not the right one. The real Ss appear to take some moral support from the split in the group, but the level of decline in errors did not reach statistical significance. The compromise is only a weak consolation to the S. The S does not follow the compromise because it is still seen to be wrong.

### Role of the Majority Size

The size of the confederate group was varied from flanked by 1 and 15 people. The maximum number of errors throughout the 18 trials would be 12 - arising from the 12 critical trials. So what was the average number of errors for a majority of several sizes. Obviously, we are not all that much influenced through a single other person who seems to create mistakes systematically. But what is the critical number which extracts the maximum amount of compliance from the real Ss?

|                        |     |      |   |     |      |       |
|------------------------|-----|------|---|-----|------|-------|
| Number of Confederates | 1   | 2    | 3 | 4   | 8    | 10-15 |
| Mean Errors            | .33 | 1.53 | 4 | 4.2 | 3.84 | 3.75  |

So a maximum effect appears to be extracted when there are just 3 other erroneous opinions (4 versus 4.2 is not an important difference) - groups of a superior size don't seem to extract accordingly superior conventionality.

### Size of the Group Error

Asch's point here is simple. The superior the deviation of the whole group from the correct choice, the smaller the effect of control on the real Ss - although again individual differences remain significant - a minority of people follow even when the majority appears to be wildly off-base.

Rather than summarizing, let me leave you with a question: what did Asch's work really tell us about WW2 propaganda and the circumstances under which it can be resisted? What did Sherif tell us about Depression. What did either of them tell us that wasn't common knowledge? Or did they merely "borrow" from the real world to sketch a little 'dramatization' - one which required us already to be literate about things being explained? I'll leave off today with that little insurgent question.

## MILGRAM'S OBEDIENCE EXPERIMENT

The Milgram experiment on obedience to authority figures was a series of social psychology experiments mannered through Yale University psychologist Stanley Milgram, which measured the willingness of study participants to obey an authority figure who instructed them to perform acts that conflicted with their personal conscience. Milgram first described his research in 1963 in an article published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, and later discussed his findings in greater depth in his 1974 book, *Obedience to Authority: An Experimental View*.

The experiments began in July 1961, three months after the start of the trial of German Nazi war criminal Adolf Eichmann in Jerusalem. Milgram devised his psychological study to answer the popular question at that scrupulous time: "Could it be that Eichmann and his million accomplices in the Holocaust were just following orders? Could we call them all accomplices?" Milgram's testing was meant to answer that question in a laboratory setting. The experiments have been repeated several times in the following years with constant results within differing societies, although not with the same percentages crossways the globe. The experiments were also controversial, and measured through some scientists to be unethical and physically or psychologically abusive. Psychologist Diana Baumrind measured the experiment "harmful because it may cause permanent psychological damage and cause people to be less trusting in the future."

### The experiment

Three individuals were involved: the one running the experiment, the subject of the experiment (a volunteer), and a confederate pretending to be a volunteer. These three persons fill three separate roles: the Experimenter (an authoritative role), the Teacher (a role planned to obey the orders of the Experimenter), and the Learner (the recipient of incentive from the Teacher). The subject and the actor both drew slips of paper to determine their roles, but unknown to the subject, both slips said "teacher". The actor would always claim to have drawn the slip that read "learner", therefore guaranteeing that the subject would always be the "teacher". At this point, the "teacher" and "learner" were separated into different rooms where they could communicate but not see each other. In one version of the experiment, the confederate was sure to mention to the participant that he had a heart condition.

The "teacher" was given an electric shock from the electro-shock generator as a sample of the shock that the "learner" would supposedly receive throughout the experiment. The "teacher" was then given a list of word pairs which he was to teach the learner. The teacher began through reading the list of word pairs to the learner. The teacher would then read the first word of each pair and read four possible answers. The learner would press a button to indicate his response. If the answer was incorrect, the teacher would

administer a shock to the learner, with the voltage increasing in 15-volt increments for each wrong answer. If correct, the teacher would read the after that word pair.

The subjects whispered that for each wrong answer, the learner was getting actual shocks. In reality, there were no shocks. After the confederate was separated from the subject, the confederate set up a tape recorder integrated with the electro-shock generator, which played pre-recorded sounds for each shock level. After a number of voltage level increases, the actor started to bang on the wall that separated him from the subject. After many times banging on the wall and complaining in relation to his heart condition, all responses through the learner would cease.

At this point, several people indicated their desire to stop the experiment and check on the learner. Some test subjects paused at 135 volts and began to question the purpose of the experiment. Most sustained after being assured that they would not be held responsible. A few subjects began to laugh nervously or exhibit other signs of extreme stress once they heard the screams of pain coming from the learner.

If at any time the subject indicated his desire to halt the experiment, he was given a succession of verbal prods through the experimenter, in this order:

1. Please *continue*.
2. The experiment requires that you *continue*.
3. It is absolutely essential that you *continue*.
4. You have no other choice, you *necessity* go on.

If the subject still wished to stop after all four successive verbal prods, the experiment was halted. Otherwise, it was halted after the subject had given the maximum 450-volt shock three times in succession.

The experimenter also gave special prods if the teacher made specific comments. If the teacher asked whether the learner might suffer permanent physical harm, the experimenter replied, "Although the shocks may be painful, there is no permanent tissue damage, so please go on." If the teacher said that the learner clearly wants to stop, the experimenter replied, "Whether the learner likes it or not, you necessity go on until he has learned all the word pairs correctly, so please go on."

## **Results**

Before conducting the experiment, Milgram polled fourteen Yale University senior-year psychology majors to predict the behavior of 100 hypothetical teachers. All of the poll respondents whispered that only a very small fraction of teachers (the range was from zero to 3 out of 100, with an average of 1.2) would be prepared to inflict the maximum voltage. Milgram also informally polled his colleagues and found that they, too, whispered very

few subjects would progress beyond a very strong shock. Milgram also polled forty psychiatrists from a medical school and they whispered that through the tenth shock, when the victim demands to be free, most subjects would stop the experiment. They predicted that through the 300 volt shock, when the victim refuses to answer, only 3.73 percent of the subjects would still continue and they whispered that "only a little over one-tenth of one percent of the subjects would administer the highest shock on the board."

In Milgram's first set of experiments, 65 percent (26 of 40) of experiment participants administered the experiment's final huge 450-volt shock, though several were very uncomfortable doing so; at some point, every participant paused and questioned the experiment; some said they would refund the money they were paid for participating in the experiment. Throughout the experiment, subjects displayed varying degrees of tension and stress. Subjects were sweating, trembling, stuttering, biting their lips, groaning, digging their fingernails into their skin, and some were even having nervous laughing fits or seizures.

Milgram summarized the experiment in his 1974 article, "The Perils of Obedience", writing:

- The legal and philosophic characteristics of obedience are of enormous importance, but they say very little about how most people behave in concrete situations. I set up a simple experiment at Yale University to test how much pain an ordinary citizen would inflict on another person simply because he was ordered to through an experimental scientist. Stark authority was pitted against the subjects' [participants'] strongest moral imperatives against hurting others, and, with the subjects' [participants'] ears ringing with the screams of the victims, authority won more often than not. The extreme willingness of adults to go to approximately any lengths on the command of an authority constitutes the chief finding of the study and the fact most urgently demanding explanation.
- Ordinary people, simply doing their jobs, and without any scrupulous hostility on their part, can become agents in a terrible destructive process. Moreover, even when the destructive effects of their work become patently clear, and they are asked to carry out actions incompatible with fundamental standards of morality, relatively few people have the resources needed to resist authority.

The original Simulated Shock Generator and Event Recorder, or *shock box*, is situated in the Archives of the History of American Psychology.

Later, Milgram and other psychologists performed variations of the experiment throughout the world, with similar results. Milgram later investigated the effect of the experiment's locale on obedience levels through holding an experiment in an unregistered, backstreet office in a bustling city, as opposed to at Yale, a respectable university. The level of obedience, "although somewhat reduced, was not significantly lower." What made more of a difference was the proximity of the "learner" and the experimenter. There

were also variations tested involving groups.

Thomas Blass of the University of Maryland, Baltimore County performed a meta-analysis on the results of repeated performances of the experiment. He found that the percentage of participants who are prepared to inflict fatal voltages remains extraordinarily constant, 61–66 percent, regardless of time or place.

There is a little-recognized factoid about Milgram Experiment, reported through Philip Zimbardo: none of the participants who refused to administer the final shocks insisted that the experiment itself be terminated, nor left the room to check the health of the victim without requesting permission to leave, as per Milgram's notes and recollections, when Zimbardo asked him in relation to that point.

Milgram created a documentary film titled *Obedience* showing the experiment and its results. He also produced a series of five social psychology films, some of which dealt with his experiments.

## **Ethics**

The Milgram Shock Experiment raised questions about research ethics of scientific experimentation because of the extreme emotional stress and inflicted insight suffered through the participants. In Milgram's protection, 84 percent of former participants surveyed later said they were "glad" or "very glad" to have participated, 15 percent chose neutral responses (92% of all former participants responding). Several later wrote expressing thanks. Milgram repeatedly received offers of assistance and requests to join his staff from former participants. Six years later (at the height of the Vietnam War), one of the participants in the experiment sent correspondence to Milgram, explaining why he was glad to have participated despite the stress:

- While I was a subject in 1964, though I whispered that I was hurting someone, I was totally unaware of why I was doing so. Few people ever realize when they are acting according to their own beliefs and when they are meekly submitting to authority... To permit myself to be drafted with the understanding that I am submitting to authority's demand to do something very wrong would create me frightened of myself... I am fully prepared to go to jail if I am not granted Conscientious Objector status. Indeed, it is the only course I could take to be faithful to what I consider. My only hope is that members of my board act equally according to their conscience...

Milgram argued that the ethical criticism provoked through his experiments was because his findings were disturbing and revealed unwelcome truths about human nature. Others have argued that the ethical debate has diverted attention from more serious problems with the experiment's methodology. Author Gina Perry found an unpublished paper in

Milgram's archives that shows Milgram's own concern with how believable the experimental set-up was to subjects involved. Milgram's unpublished analysis indicated that several subjects suspected that the experiment was a hoax, a finding that casts doubt on the veracity of his results. In the journal *Jewish Currents*, Joseph Dimow, a participant in the 1961 experiment at Yale University, wrote in relation to his early withdrawal as a "teacher," suspicious "that the whole experiment was intended to see if ordinary Americans would obey immoral orders, as several Germans had done throughout the Nazi period."

### ***Inapplicability to Holocaust***

Milgram sparked direct critical response in the scientific community through claiming that "a common psychological process is centrally involved in both [his laboratory experiments and Nazi Germany] events." Professor James Waller, Chair of Holocaust and Genocide Studies at Keene State College, formerly Chair of Whitworth College Psychology Department, expressed the opinion that Milgram experiments *do not correspond well* to the Holocaust events:

- The subjects of Milgram experiments, wrote James Waller (*Becoming Evil*), were assured in advance, that *no permanent physical damage would result from their actions*. Though, the Holocaust perpetrators were fully aware of the finite nature of their hands-on killing and maiming of the victims.
- The laboratory subjects themselves did not know their victims and were not motivated through racism. On the other hand, the Holocaust perpetrators displayed an *intense devaluation of the victims* through a lifetime of personal development.
- Those serving punishment at the lab were not sadists, nor hate-mongers, and often *exhibited great anguish and conflict* in the experiment, unlike the designers and executioners of the Final Solution who had a clear "goal" on their hands, set beforehand.
- The experiment lasted for an hour, with no time for the subjects to *contemplate the implications of their behavior*. Meanwhile, the Holocaust lasted for years with ample time for a moral assessment of all individuals and organizations involved.

In the opinion of Thomas Blass, who is the author of scholarly monograph on the experiment (*The Man Who Shocked The World*) published in 2004, the historical proof pertaining to actions of the Holocaust perpetrators speaks louder than words:

- Milgram's approach does not give a fully adequate explanation of the Holocaust. While it may well account for the dutiful destructiveness of the dispassionate bureaucrat who may have shipped Jews to Auschwitz with the same degree of routinization as potatoes to Bremenhaven, it falls short when one tries to apply it to the more zealous, inventive, and

hate-driven atrocities that also characterized the Holocaust.— Thomas Blass, "The Roots of Stanley Milgram's Obedience Experiments and Their Relevance to the Holocaust"

## **Manipulated results**

An Australian psychologist Gina Perry's, after an investigation of the test claims that Milgram manipulated his results. "Overall, over half disobeyed," said Ms Perry. Of those that obeyed, there were on one occasion several more than four promptings, but 26 times before doing it.> Many times in fact some subjects asked to swap places with the learner. Some subjects, Gina Perry claims thought it was not real but a reality TV show.

## **Interpretations**

Professor Milgram elaborated two theories

- The first is the *theory of conformism*, based on Solomon Asch conventionality experiments, describing the fundamental relationship flanked by the group of reference and the individual person. A subject who has neither skill nor expertise to create decisions, especially in a crisis, will leave decision making to the group and its hierarchy. The group is the person's behavioral model.
- The second is the *agentic state theory*, wherein, per Milgram, "the essence of obedience consists in the fact that a person comes to view themselves as the instrument for carrying out another person's wishes, and they so no longer see themselves as responsible for their actions. Once this critical shift of viewpoint has occurred in the person, all of the essential features of obedience follow".

## **Alternative interpretations**

In his book *Irrational Exuberance*, Yale Finance Professor Robert Shiller argues that other factors might be partially able to explain the Milgram Experiments:

- [People] have learned that when experts tell them something is all right, it almost certainly is, even if it does not seem so. (In fact, it is worth noting that in this case the experimenter was indeed correct: it was all right to continue giving the 'shocks' — even though most of the subjects did not suspect the cause.)

In a 2006 experiment, a computerized avatar was used in place of the learner getting electrical shocks. Although the participants administering the shocks were aware that the learner was unreal, the experimenters reported that participants responded to the situation physiologically "as if it were real."

For a 2009 episode of the BBC science documentary series *Horizon*, the Milgram experiment was replicated. Of the 12 participants, only three refused to continue to the end of the experiment. Speaking throughout the episode, social psychologist Clifford Stott discussed the influence that the idealism of scientific enquiry had on the volunteers. He remarked: "The influence is ideological. It's about considering science to be, that science is a positive product, it produces beneficial findings and knowledge to society that are helpful for society. So there's that sense of science is providing some kind of system for good."

## **Replications and variations**

### ***Milgram's variations***

In *Obedience to Authority: An Experimental View* (1974), Milgram describes 19 variations of his experiment, some of which had not been previously reported.

Many experiments varied the immediacy of the teacher and learner. Usually, when the victim's physical immediacy was increased, the participant's compliance decreased. The participant's compliance also decreased when the authority's physical immediacy decreased (Experiments 1–4). For instance, in Experiment 2, where participants received telephonic instructions from the experimenter, compliance decreased to 21 percent. Interestingly, some participants deceived the experimenter through *pretending* to continue the experiment. In the difference where the "learner's" physical immediacy was closest, where participants had to physically hold the "learner's" arm onto a shock plate, compliance decreased. Under that condition, 30 percent of participants completed the experiment.

In Experiment 8, women were the participants; previously, all participants had been men. Obedience did not significantly differ, though the women communicated experiencing higher levels of stress.

Experiment 10 took place in a modest office in Bridgeport, Connecticut, purporting to be the commercial entity "Research Associates of Bridgeport" without apparent connection to Yale University, to eliminate the university's prestige as a possible factor influencing the participants' behavior. In those circumstances, obedience dropped to 47.5 percent, though the difference was not statistically important.

Milgram also combined the effect of authority with that of conventionality. In those experiments, the participant was joined through one or two additional "teachers" (also actors, like the "learner"). The behavior of the participants' peers strongly affected the results. In Experiment 17, when two additional teachers refused to comply, only 4 of 40 participants sustained in the experiment. In Experiment 18, the participant performed a subsidiary task (reading the questions via microphone or recording the learner's answers) with another "teacher" who complied fully. In that difference, 37 of 40 sustained

with the experiment.

### ***Replications***

Approximately the time of the release of *Obedience to Authority* (i.e. 1973-1974), a version of the experiment was mannered at La Trobe university in Australia. As reported through Gina Perry in *Behind the Shock Machine*, some of the participants experienced long-lasting psychological effects, perhaps due to the lack of proper debriefing through the experimenter.

In 2002 the British artist Rod Dickinson created *The Milgram Re-enactment*, an exact reconstruction of parts of the original experiment, including the rooms used, lighting and uniforms. An audience watched the four-hour performance through one-method glass windows. A video of this performance was first shown at the CCA Gallery in Glasgow in 2002.

A partial replication of the Milgram experiment was staged through British psychological illusionist Derren Brown and broadcast on Channel 4 in the UK in *The Heist*.

Another partial replication of the Milgram experiment was mannered through Jerry M. Burger in 2006 and broadcast on the Primetime series *Basic Instincts*. Burger noted that, "current standards for the ethical treatment of participants clearly place Milgram's studies out of bounds." In 2009 Burger was able to receive approval from the institutional review board through modifying many of the experimental protocols. Burger found obedience rates virtually identical to what Milgram found in 1961–1962, even while meeting current ethical regulations of informing participants. In addition, half the replication participants were female, and their rate of obedience was virtually identical to that of the male participants. Burger also incorporated a condition in which participants first saw another participant refuse to continue. Though, participants in this condition obeyed at the same rate as participants in the base condition.

In the 2010 French documentary, *Le Jeu de la Mort (The Game of Death)*, researchers recreated the Milgram experiment with an added critique of reality television through presenting the scenario as a game show pilot. Volunteers were given €40 and told they would not win any money from the game, as this was only a trial. Only 16 of 80 "contestants" (teachers) chose to end the game before delivering the highest voltage punishment.

The experiment was performed on the April 25th, 2010 episode of *Dateline NBC*.

The Detection Channel aired the "How Evil are You" segment of *Curiosity* which aired on October 30, 2011. The episode was hosted through Eli Roth who got similar results to the original Milgram experiment. Due to increasingly widespread knowledge of the experiment, recent replications of Milgram's procedure had to ensure that the participants were not previously aware of it.

### ***Other variations***

Charles Sheridan and Richard King hypothesized that some of Milgram's subjects may have suspected that the victim was faking, so they repeated the experiment with a real victim: a "cute, fluffy puppy" who was given real, albeit apparently harmless, electric shocks. They found similar findings to Milgram: half of the male subjects and all of the females obeyed to the end. Several subjects showed high levels of distress throughout the experiment and some openly wept. In addition, Sheridan and King found that the duration for which the shock button was pressed decreased as the shocks got higher, meaning that for higher shock levels, subjects showed more hesitations towards delivering the shocks.

## **INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION AND ALTRUISM**

### **Interpersonal attraction**

Interpersonal attraction is the attraction flanked by people which leads to friendships and romantic relationships. Interpersonal attraction, the process, is separate from perceptions of physical attractiveness which involves views of what is and is not measured beautiful or attractive.

The study of interpersonal attraction is a major area of research in social psychology. Interpersonal attraction is related to how much we like, dislike, or hate someone. It can be viewed as force acting flanked by two people that tends to draw them together and resist their separation. When measuring interpersonal attraction, one necessity refer to the qualities of the attracted as well as the qualities of the attractor to achieve predictive accuracy. It is suggested that to determine attraction, personality and situation necessity be taken into account. Repulsion is also a factor in the process of interpersonal attraction, one's conception of "attraction" to another can vary from extreme attraction to extreme repulsion.

### ***Measurement***

Interpersonal attraction is most regularly measured using the 'Interpersonal Attraction Judgment Scale' urbanized through Donn Byrne. It is a scale in which a subject rates a target person on dimensions such as intelligence, knowledge of current events, morality, adjustment, like-skill and desirability as a work partner. This scale seems to be directly related with other measures of social attraction such as social choice, desirability ratings as a date, sexual partner, or spouse, voluntary physical proximity, frequency of eye get in touch with, etc. Kiesler & Goldberg analyzed a diversity of response measures that were typically utilized as measures of attraction and extracted two factors: The

first, characterized as primarily socio-emotional, incorporated variables such as liking, desirability of the target's inclusion in social clubs and parties, seating choices, and lunching together. The second factor incorporated variables such as voting for, admiration and respect for, and also seeking the opinion of the target. Another widely used measurement technique is when you use the simple scaling of verbal responses which are expressed in conditions of ratings or judgments of the person of target.

### ***Causes***

Several factors leading to interpersonal attraction have been studied, all of which involve social reinforcement. The most regularly studied are: physical attractiveness, propinquity, familiarity, similarity, complementarity, reciprocal liking, and reinforcement.

### ***Propinquity effect***

According to Rowland Miller's Intimate Relationships text, the propinquity effect can be defined as: "the more we see and interact with a person, the more likely he or she is to become our friend or sexual partner." This effect is very similar to the mere exposure effect in that the more a person is exposed to an incentive, the more the person likes it; though, there are a few exceptions to the mere exposure effect. Familiarity can also occur without physical exposure. Recent studies show that relationships formed over the Internet resemble those urbanized face-to-face, in conditions of quality and depth.

### ***Mere exposure/exposure effect***

As mentioned above, the mere exposure effect, also recognized as the familiarity principle, states that the more we are exposed to something, the more we come to like it. This applies equally to both objects and people. The social allergy effect occurs when a person's annoying habits grow worse over time, instead of rising fonder of his or her idiosyncrasies.

### ***Social exchange theory***

People's feelings toward a potential partner are dependent on their perception of rewards and costs, the kind of relationships they deserve, and their likelihood for having a healthier relationship with someone else. Rewards are the part of a relationship that creates it worthwhile and enjoyable. A cost is something that can cause irritation like a friend overstaying his welcome. Comparison level is also taken into account throughout a relationship. This suggests that people expect rewards or costs depending on the time invested in the relationship. If the level of expected rewards are minimal and the level of costs is high, the relationship suffers and both parties may become dissatisfied and unhappy. Lastly, the comparison of alternatives means that satisfaction is

conditional on the chance that a person could replace the relationship with a more desirable one.

### **Evolutionary theories**

The evolutionary theory of human interpersonal attraction states that opposite-sex attraction most often occurs when someone has physical features indicating that he or she is very fertile. Considering that one primary purpose of conjugal/romantic relationships is reproduction, it would follow that people invest in partners who appear very fertile, increasing the chance of their genes being passed down to the after that generation. This theory has been criticized because it does not explain relationships flanked by same-sex couples or couples who do not want children, although this may have something to do with the fact that whether one wants children or not one is still subject to the evolutionary forces which produce them.

Another evolutionary explanation suggests that fertility in a mate is of greater importance to men than to women. According to this theory, a woman places important emphasis on a man's skill to give resources and protection. The theory suggests that these resources and protection are significant in ensuring the successful raising of the woman's offspring. The skill to give resources and protection might also be sought because the underlying traits are likely to be passed on to male offspring. Critics of this theory point out that most genes are autosomal and non-sex-connected.

Evolutionary theory also suggests that people whose physical features suggest they are healthy are seen as more attractive. The theory suggests that a healthy mate is more likely to possess genetic traits related to health that would be passed on to offspring. People's tendency to consider people with facial symmetry more attractive than those with less symmetrical faces is one instance. Though, a test was mannered that found that perfectly symmetrical faces were less attractive than normal faces. According to this study, the exact ratio of symmetric to asymmetric facial features depicting the highest attraction is still undetermined.

It has also been suggested that people are attracted to faces similar to their own. Case studies have revealed that when a photograph of a woman was superimposed to contain the features of a man's face, the man whose face was superimposed approximately always rated that picture the most attractive. This theory is based upon the notion that we want to replicate our own features in the after that generation, as we have survived therefore distant with such features and have instinctive survival wishes for our children. Another (non-evolutionary) explanation given for the results of that study was that the man whose face was superimposed may have consciously or subconsciously associated the photographically altered female face with the face of his mother or other family member.

## **Altruism**

Altruism or selflessness is the principle or practice of concern for the welfare of others. It is a traditional virtue in several cultures and a core aspect of several religious traditions, though the concept of "others" toward whom concern should be directed can vary among cultures and religions. Altruism or selflessness is the opposite of selfishness.

Altruism can be distinguished from feelings of duty and loyalty. Altruism is a motivation to give something of value to a party who necessarily be anyone but one's self, while duty focuses on a moral obligation towards a specific individual (e.g., a god, a king), or communal (e.g., a government). Pure altruism consists of sacrificing something for someone other than the self (e.g. sacrificing time, energy or possessions) with no expectation of any compensation or benefits, either direct, or indirect (e.g., getting recognition for the act of giving).

Much debate exists as to whether "true" altruism is possible. The theory of psychological egoism suggests that no act of sharing, helping or sacrificing can be described as truly altruistic, as the actor may receive an intrinsic reward in the form of personal gratification. The validity of this argument depends on whether intrinsic rewards qualify as "benefits."

The term *altruism* may also refer to an ethical doctrine that claims that individuals are morally obliged to benefit others. Used in this sense, it's usually contrasted to egoism, which is defined as acting to the benefit of one's self.

### ***The notion of altruism***

The concept has a long history in philosophical and ethical thought. The term was originally coined in the 19th century through the founding sociologist and philosopher of science, Auguste Comte, and has become a major topic for psychologists (especially evolutionary psychology researchers), evolutionary biologists, and ethologists. Whilst ideas about altruism from one field can have an impact on the other fields, the different methods and focuses of these fields always lead to different perspectives on altruism. In simple conditions, altruism is caring about welfare of other people and acting to help them.

### ***Scientific viewpoints***

#### *Anthropology*

Marcel Mauss's book *The Gift* contains a passage: "Note on alms." This note describes the evolution of the notion of alms (and through extension of altruism) from the notion of sacrifice. In it, he writes:

- Alms are the fruits of a moral notion of the gift and of fortune on the one hand, and of a notion of sacrifice, on the other. Generosity is an obligation, because Nemesis avenges the poor and the gods for the superabundance of happiness and wealth of certain people who should rid themselves of it. This is the ancient morality of the gift, which has become a principle of justice. The gods and the spirits accept that the share of wealth and happiness that has been offered to them and had been hitherto destroyed in useless sacrifices should serve the poor and children.

### *Evolutionary explanations*

In the science of ethology (the study of animal behaviour), and more usually in the study of social evolution, altruism refers to behaviour through an individual that increases the fitness of another individual while decreasing the fitness of the actor. In evolutionary psychology this may be applied to a wide range of human behaviors such as charity, emergency aid, help to coalition partners, tipping, courtship gifts, production of public goods, and environmentalism.

Theories of apparently altruistic behavior were accelerated through the need to produce theories compatible with evolutionary origins. Two related strands of research on altruism have appeared from traditional evolutionary analyses and from game theory.

Some of the proposed mechanisms are:

- Kin selection. That animals and humans are more altruistic towards close kin than to distant kin and non-kin has been confirmed in numerous studies crossways several different cultures. Even subtle cues indicating kinship may unconsciously augment altruistic behavior. One kinship cue is facial resemblance. One study found that slightly altering photographs so that they more closely resembled the faces of study participants increased the trust the participants expressed concerning depicted persons. Another cue is having the same family name, especially if rare, and this has been found to augment helping behavior. Another study found more cooperative behavior the greater the number the perceived kin in a group. Using kinship conditions in political speeches increased audience agreement with the speaker in one study. This effect was especially strong for firstborns, who are typically close to their families.
- Vested interests. People are likely to suffer if their friends, allies, and similar social in-groups suffer or even disappear. Helping such group members may so eventually benefit the altruist. Making in-group membership more noticeable increases cooperativeness. Extreme self-sacrifice towards the in-group may be adaptive if a hostile out-group threatens to kill the whole in-group.
- Reciprocal altruism. See also Reciprocity (evolution).

- Direct reciprocity. Research shows that it can be beneficial to help others if there is a chance that they can and will reciprocate the help. The effective tit for tat strategy is one game theoretic instance. Several people seem to be following a similar strategy through cooperating if and only if others cooperate in return.

One consequence is that people are more cooperative if it is more likely that individuals will interact again in the future. People tend to be less cooperative if they perceive that the frequency of helpers in the population is lower. They tend to help less if they see non-cooperativeness through others and this effect tends to be stronger than the opposite effect of seeing cooperative behaviors. Simply changing the cooperative framing of a proposal may augment cooperativeness such as calling it a "Community Game" instead of a "Wall Street Game."

A tendency towards reciprocity implies that people will feel obligated to respond if someone helps them. This has been used through charities that provide small gifts to potential donors hoping thereby to induce reciprocity. Another method is to announce publicly that someone has given a large donation. The tendency to reciprocate can even generalize so people become more helpful toward others in general after being helped. On the other hand, people will avoid or even retaliate against those perceived not to be cooperating. People sometimes mistakenly fail to help when they planned to, or their helping may not be noticed, which may cause unintended conflicts. As such, it may be an optimal strategy to be slightly forgiving of and have a slightly generous interpretation of non-cooperation. People are more likely to cooperate on a task if they can communicate with one another first. This may be due to better assessments of cooperativeness or due to exchange of promises. They are more cooperative if they can slowly build trust, instead of being asked to provide extensive help immediately. Direct reciprocity and cooperation in a group can be increased through changing the focus and incentives from intra-group competition to superior scale competitions such as flanked by groups or against the general population. Therefore, giving grades and promotions based only on an individual's performance relative to a small local group, as is common, may reduce cooperative behaviors in the group.

- Indirect reciprocity. The avoidance of poor reciprocators and cheaters causes a person's reputation to become very significant. A person with a good reputation for reciprocity has a higher chance of getting help even from persons they have had no direct interactions with previously.
- Strong reciprocity. A form of reciprocity where some individuals seem to spend more resources on cooperating and punishing than would be most beneficial as predicted through

many established theories of altruism. A number of theories have been proposed as explanations as well as criticisms concerning its subsistence.

- Pseudo-reciprocity. An organism behaves altruistically and the recipient does not reciprocate but has an increased chance of acting in a method that is selfish but also as a byproduct benefits the altruist.
- Costly signaling and the handicap principle. Since altruism takes absent resources from the altruist it can be an "honest signal" of resource availability and the abilities needed to gather resources. This may signal to others that the altruist is a valuable potential partner. It may also be a signal of interactive and cooperative intentions since those not interacting further in the future gain nothing from the costly signaling. It is unclear if costly signaling can indicate a long-term cooperative personality but people have increased trust for those who help. Costly signaling is pointless if everyone has the same traits, resources, and cooperative intentions but become a potentially more significant signal if the population increasingly varies on these characteristics. Hunters widely sharing the meat has been seen as a costly signal of skill and research has found that good hunters have higher reproductive success and more adulterous relations even if they themselves receive no more of the hunted meat than anyone else. Similarly, holding large feasts and giving large donations has been seen as methods of demonstrating one's resources. Heroic risk-taking has also been interpreted as a costly signal of skill. Both indirect reciprocity and costly signaling depend on the value of reputation and tend to create similar predictions. One is that people will be more helping when they know that their helping behavior will be communicated to people they will interact with later, is publicly announced, is discussed, or is simply being observed through someone else. This have been documented in several studies. The effect is sensitive to subtle cues such as people being more helpful when there were stylized eyespots instead of a logo on a computer screen. Weak reputation cues such as eyespots may become unimportant if there are stronger cues present and may lose their effect with sustained exposure unless reinforced with real reputation effects. Public displays such as public weeping for dead celebrities and participation in demonstrations may be influenced through a desire to be seen as altruistic. People who know that they are publicly monitored sometimes even wastefully donate money they know are not needed through recipient which may be because of reputation concerns. Women have been found to find altruistic men to be attractive partners. When looking for a long-term partner more conventional altruism may be preferred which may indicate that he is also willing to share resources with her and her children while when looking for a short-term partner heroic risk-

taking, which may be costly signal showing good genes, may be more preferable? Men also perform more altruistic acts in the early stages of a romantic relationship or simply when in the attendance of an attractive woman. While both sexes state that kindness is the most preferable trait in a partner there is some proof that men place less value on this than women and that women may not be more altruistic in attendance of an attractive man. Men may even avoid altruistic women in short-term relationships which may be because they expect less success. People may compete over getting the benefits of a high reputation which may cause competitive altruism. On other hand, in some experiments a proportion of people do not seem to care about reputation and they do not help more even if this is conspicuous. This may perhaps be due to reasons such as psychopath or that they are so attractive that they need not be seen to be altruistic. The reputation benefits of altruism occur in the future as compared to the immediate costs of altruism in the present. While humans and other organisms usually place less value on future costs/benefits as compared to those in the present, some have shorter time horizons than others and these people tend to be less cooperative. Explicit extrinsic rewards and punishments have been found to sometimes actually have opposite effects on behaviors. This may be because such extrinsic, top-down incentives may undermine intrinsic and reputation incentives which overall may create the behaviors less desirable to do. Another effect is that people would like altruism to be due to a personality characteristic rather than due to overt reputation concerns and simply pointing out that there are reputation benefits of an action may actually reduce them. This may perhaps be used as derogatory tactic against altruists, especially through those who are non-cooperators. A counterargument is that doing well due to reputation concerns is better than doing no good at all.

- Group selection. It has controversially been argued through some evolutionary scientists such as E. O. Wilson that natural selection can act at the level of non-kin groups to produce adaptations that benefit a non-kin group even if these adaptations are detrimental at the individual level. Therefore, while altruistic persons may under some circumstances be out competed through less altruistic persons at the individual level, according to group selection theory the opposite may occur at the group level where groups consisting of the more altruistic persons may out compete groups consisting of the less altruistic persons. Such altruism may only extend to in-group members while there may instead prejudice and antagonism against out-group members. Group selection theory has been criticized through several other evolutionary scientists.

Such explanations do not imply that humans are always consciously calculating how to augment their inclusive fitness when they are doing

altruistic acts. Instead, evolution has shaped psychological mechanisms, such as emotions, that promote altruistic behaviors. Every single instance of altruistic behavior need not always augment inclusive fitness; altruistic behaviors would have been selected for if such behaviors on average increased inclusive fitness in the ancestral environment. This need not imply that on average 50% or more of altruistic acts were beneficial for the altruist in the ancestral environment; if the benefits from helping the right person were very high it would be beneficial to err on the side of caution and usually be altruistic even if in most cases there were no benefits.

The benefits for the altruist may be increased and the costs reduced through being more altruistic towards certain groups. Research has found that people are more altruistic to kin than to no-kin, to friends than to strangers, to those attractive than to those unattractive, to non-competitors than to competitors, and to members in-groups than to members of out-group.

The study of altruism was the initial impetus behind George R. Price's development of the Price equation, which is a mathematical equation used to study genetic evolution. A motivating instance of altruism is found in the cellular slime moulds, such as *Dictyostelium mucoroides*. These protists live as individual amoebae until starved, at which point they aggregate and form a multicellular fruiting body in which some cells sacrifice themselves to promote the survival of other cells in the fruiting body.

Selective investment theory proposes that close social bonds, and associated emotional, cognitive, and neurohormonal mechanisms, evolved in order to facilitate long-term, high-cost altruism flanked by those closely depending on one another for survival and reproductive success.

Such cooperative behaviors have sometimes been seen as arguments for left-wing politics such through the Russian zoologist and anarchist Peter Kropotkin in his 1902 book *Mutual Aid: A Factor of Evolution* and Peter Singer in his book *A Darwinian Left*.

Most recently, Jeremy Griffith has proposed a biological theory for the development of truly altruistic instincts that accommodates the biological imperative to reproduce, as evidenced through a moral conscience visible in humans today.

### *Neurobiology*

Jorge Moll and Jordan Grafman, neuroscientists at the National Institutes of Health and LABS-D'Or Hospital Network (J.M.) provided the first proof for the neural bases of altruistic giving in normal healthy volunteers, using functional magnetic resonance imaging. In their research, published in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA in October, 2006, they showed that both pure monetary rewards and charitable donations activated the mesolimbic reward pathway, a primitive part of the brain that usually lights up in response to food and sex. Though, when volunteers generously placed the interests of others before their own through making charitable

donations, another brain circuit was selectively activated: the subgenual cortex/septal region. These structures are intimately related to social attachment and bonding in other species. Altruism, the experiment suggested, was not a superior moral faculty that suppresses basic selfish urges but rather was basic to the brain, hard-wired and pleasurable.

Another experiment funded through the National Institutes of Health and conducted in 2007 at the Duke University in Durham, North Carolina suggests a different view, "that altruistic behavior may originate from how people view the world rather than how they act in it." In the study published in the February 2007 print issue of *Nature Neuroscience*, researchers have found a part of the brain that behaves differently for altruistic and selfish people.

The researchers invited 45 volunteers to play a computer game and also to watch the computer play the game. In some rounds, the game resulted in the volunteers winning money for them, and in others it resulted in money being donated to a charity of the volunteer's choice. Throughout these activities, the researchers took functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) scans of the participants' brains and were "surprised through the results". Although they "were expecting to see activity in the brain's reward centers," based on the thought that "people perform altruistic acts because they feel good absolutist," what they found was that "another part of the brain was also involved, and it was quite sensitive to the difference flanked by doing something for personal gain and doing it for someone else's gain." That part of the brain is described as the posterior superior temporal cortex (pSTC).

In the after that stage, the scientists asked the participants some questions about type and frequency of their altruistic or helping behaviours. They then analyzed the responses to generate an estimate of a person's tendency to act altruistically and compared each person's level of altruism against their fMRI brain scan. The results showed that pSTC activity rose in proportion to a person's self-reported level of altruism. According to the researchers, the results suggest that altruistic behavior may originate from how people view the world rather than how they act in it. "We consider that the skill to perceive other people's actions as meaningful is critical for altruism," said lead study investigator Dharol Tankersley.

### *Psychology*

The International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences defines *psychological altruism* as "a motivational state with the goal of increasing another's welfare." Psychological altruism is contrasted with *psychological egoism*, which refers to the motivation to augment one's own welfare.

There has been some debate on whether or not humans are truly capable of psychological altruism. Some definitions specify a self-sacrificial nature to altruism and a lack of external rewards for altruistic behaviors. Though, because altruism ultimately benefits the self in several cases, the selflessness of altruistic acts is brought to question. The social exchange theory postulates

that altruism only exists when benefits outweigh costs. Daniel Batson is a psychologist who examined this question and argues against the social exchange theory. He recognized four major motives for altruism: altruism to ultimately benefit the self (egoism), to ultimately benefit the other person (altruism), to benefit a group (collectivism), or to uphold a moral principle (principlism). Altruism that ultimately serves selfish gains is therefore differentiated from selfless altruism, but the general conclusion has been that empathy-induced altruism can be genuinely selfless. The *empathy-altruism hypothesis* basically states that psychological altruism does exist and is evoked through the empathic desire to help someone who is suffering. Feelings of empathic concern are contrasted with feelings of personal distress, which compel people to reduce their own unpleasant emotions. People with empathic concern help others in distress even when exposure to the situation could be easily avoided, whereas those lacking in empathic concern avoid helping unless it is hard or impossible to avoid exposure to another's suffering. Helping behavior is seen in humans at about two years old, when a toddler is capable of understanding subtle emotional cues.

In psychological research on altruism, studies often observe altruism as demonstrated through prosocial behaviors such as helping, comforting, sharing, cooperation, philanthropy, and community service. Research has found that people are most likely to help if they recognize that a person is in need and feel personal responsibility for reducing the person's distress. Research also suggests that the number of bystanders witnessing distress or suffering affects the likelihood of helping (the *Bystander effect*). Greater numbers of bystanders decrease individual feelings of responsibility. Though, a witness with a high level of empathic concern is likely to assume personal responsibility entirely regardless of the number of bystanders.

Several studies have observed the effects of volunteerism (as a form of altruism) on happiness and health and have uniformly found a strong connection flanked by volunteerism and current and future health and well-being. In a study of older adults, those who volunteered were significantly higher on life satisfaction and will to live, and significantly lower in depression, anxiety, and somatization. Volunteerism and helping behavior have not only been shown to improve mental health, but physical health and longevity as well. One study examined the physical health of mothers who volunteered over a 30-year period and found that 52% of those who did not belong to a volunteer organization experienced a major illness while only 36% of those who did volunteer experienced one. A study on adults ages 55+ found that throughout the four-year study period, people who volunteered for two or more organizations had a 63% lower likelihood of dying. After controlling for prior health status, it was determined that volunteerism accounted for a 44% reduction in mortality. Merely being aware of kindness in oneself and others is also associated with greater well-being. A study that asked participants to count each act of kindness they performed for one week significantly enhanced their subjective happiness. It is significant to note that, while

research supports the thought that altruistic acts bring about happiness, it has also been found to work in the opposite direction—that happier people are also kinder. The relationship flanked by altruistic behavior and happiness is bidirectional. Studies have found that generosity increases linearly from sad to happy affective states. Studies have also been careful to note that feeling over-taxed through the needs of others has conversely negative effects on health and happiness. For instance, one study on volunteerism found that feeling overwhelmed through others' demands had an even stronger negative effect on mental health than helping had a positive one (although positive effects were still important). Additionally, while generous acts create people feel good about selves, it is also significant for people to appreciate the kindness they receive from others. Studies suggest that gratitude goes hand-in-hand with kindness and is also very significant for our well-being. A study on the relationship happiness to several character strengths showed that "a conscious focus on gratitude led to reductions in negative affect and increases in optimistic appraisals, positive affect, offering emotional support, sleep quality, and well-being."

### *Sociology*

"Sociologists have long been concerned with how to build the good society" ("Altruism, Morality, and Social Solidarity". American Sociological Association.). The structure of our societies and how individuals come to exhibit charitable, philanthropic, and other pro-social, altruistic actions for the common good is a largely researched topic within the field. The American Sociology Association (ASA) acknowledges Public sociology saying, "The intrinsic scientific, policy, and public relevance of this field of investigation in helping to construct 'good societies' is unquestionable" ("Altruism, Morality, and Social Solidarity" ASA). This type of sociology seeks contributions that aid grassroots and theoretical understandings of what motivates altruism and how it is organized, and promotes an altruistic focus in order to benefit the world and people it studies. How altruism is framed, organized, accepted out, and what motivates it at the group level is an area of focus that sociologists seek to investigate in order to contribute back to the groups it studies and "build the good society".

## **SIMILARITY AND COMPLEMENTARITY**

### **Similarity (like-attracts-like)**

The notion of "birds of a feather flock together" points out that similarity is a crucial determinant of interpersonal attraction. Studies about attraction indicate that people are strongly attracted to look-a-likes in physical and social

appearance ("like attracts like"). This similarity is in the broadest sense: similarity in bone-structure, characteristics, life goals, ethnicity and appearance. The more these points match, the happier people are in a relationship.

The look-alike effect plays a significant role described self-affirmation. A person typically enjoys getting confirmation of every aspect of his or her life, ideas, attitudes and personal characteristics and it seems that people are looking for an image of themselves to spend their life with. One of the basic principles of interpersonal attraction is the rule of similarity: similarity is attractive. It is this underlying principle that applies to both friendships and romantic relationships. There is a high correlation flanked by the proportion of attitudes shared, and the degree of interpersonal attraction. Cheerful people like to be approximately other cheerful people and negative people would rather be approximately other negative people.

According to Morry's attraction-similarity model, there is a lay belief that people with actual similarity produce initial attraction. Perceived similarity develops for someone to rate others as similar to themselves in on-going relationship. Such perception is either self-serving (friendship) or relationship-serving (romantic relationship). Theodore Newcomb (1963) pointed out that people tend to change perceived similarity to obtain balance in a relationship. Additionally, perceived similarity was found to be greater than actual similarity in predicting interpersonal attraction. A 2004 study, based on indirect proof, concluded that humans choose mates based partly on facial resemblance to themselves.

### ***Similarity in different characteristics***

Findings suggest that interpersonal similarity and attraction are multidimensional constructs, in which people are attracted to others who are similar to them in demographics, physical appearance, attitudes, interpersonal style, social and cultural background, personality, interests and activities preferences, and communication and social skills. A study mannered through Newcomb on college dorm roommates suggested that individuals with shared backgrounds, academic achievements, attitudes, values, and political views typically became friends.

### ***Physical appearance***

The matching hypothesis proposed through sociologist Erving Goffman suggests that people are more likely to form long standing relationships with those who are equally matched in social attributes, like physical attractiveness, as they are. The study through researchers Walster and Walster supported the matching hypothesis through showing that partners who were similar in conditions of physical attractiveness expressed the most liking for each other. Another study also found proof that supported the matching hypothesis: photos of dating and occupied couples were rated in conditions of

attractiveness, and a definite tendency was found for couples of similar attractiveness to date or engage. Many studies support this proof of similar facial attractiveness. Penton-Voak, Perrett, and Peirce found that subjects rated the pictures with their own face morphed into it as more attractive. DeBruine demonstrated in her research how subjects entrusted more money to their opponents in a game play, when the opponents were presented as similar to them. Little, Burt, & Perrett examined similarity in sight for married couples and found that the couples were assessed at the same age and level of attractiveness.

A speed-dating experiment done on graduate students from Columbia University showed that although physical attractiveness is preferred in a potential partner, men show a greater preference for it than women, but other studies show otherwise. Moreover, other than investigation the effect of physical looks on interpersonal attraction, quality of voice that can improve interpersonal attraction was also observed. Two studies were done. For the first study the spotlight, subjects, had 25 female students from a university whereas there were four male target people from a different university. The level of attraction of voice and physical look of the target people was ranked through the subjects. The level of attraction of voice and physical look had their own separate results on interpersonal attraction. For the after that study, there 62 subjects, 20 males and 42 females, from a university and there 16 target students, 8 males and 8 females, from a different university. The outcomes of the first study were actually replicated. Hence, cheerful, gentle voices, minimal voiced pitch plus a little scale of vocal pitch tend to result in a greater personal attraction.

### ***Attitudes***

According to the 'law of attraction' through Byrne (1971), attraction towards a person is positively related to the proportion of attitudes similarity associated with that person. Clore (1976) also raised that the one with similar attitudes as yours was more agreeable with your perception of things and more reinforcing she/he was, so the more you like him/her. Based on the cognitive consistency theories, difference in attitudes and interests can lead to dislike and avoidance whereas similarity in attitudes promotes social attraction. Miller (1972) pointed out that attitude similarity activates the perceived attractiveness and favor-skill information from each other, whereas dissimilarity would reduce the impact of these cues.

The studies through Jamieson, Lydon and Zanna showed that attitude similarity could predict how people evaluate their respect for each other, and social and intellectual first impressions which in conditions of activity preference similarity and value-based attitude similarity respectively. In intercrop comparisons, high attitude similarity would lead to homogeneity among in-group members whereas low attitude similarity would lead to diversity among in-group members, promoting social attraction and achieving

high group performance in different tasks.

Although attitudinal similarity and attraction are linearly related, attraction may not contribute significantly to attitude change.

### ***Social and cultural background***

Byrne, Clore and Worchel suggested people with similar economic status are likely to be attracted to each other. Buss & Barnes also found that people prefer their romantic partners to be similar in certain demographic characteristics, including religious background, political orientation and socio-economic status.

### ***Personality***

Researchers have shown that interpersonal attraction was positively correlated to personality similarity. People are inclined to desire romantic partners who are similar to themselves on agreeableness, conscientiousness, extroversion, emotional stability, openness to experience, and attachment style.

### ***Interests and activities***

Activity similarity was especially predictive of liking judgments, which affects the judgments of attraction. Lydon and Zanna claimed that high self-monitoring people were influenced more through activity preference similarity than attitude similarity on initial attraction, while low self-monitoring people were influenced more on initial attraction through value-based attitude similarity than activity preference similarity.

### ***Social skills***

According to the post-conversation measures of social attraction, tactical similarity was positively correlated with partner satisfaction and global competence ratings, but was uncorrelated with the opinion change and perceived persuasiveness measures.

### ***Marriage***

When checking similar variables they were also seen as more similar on a number of personality characteristics. This study found that the length of the average relationship was related to perceptions of similarity; the couples who were together longer were seen as more equal. This effect can be attributed to the fact that when time passes through couples become more alike through shared experiences, or that couples that are alike stay together longer.

### ***Reasons of spouse similarity***

Social homogamy refers to "passive, indirect effects on spousal similarity". The result showed that age and education level are crucial in affecting the mate preference. Because people with similar age study and interact more in the same form of the school, propinquity effect plays an important impact in spousal similarity.

Convergence refers to an increasing similarity with time. Although the previous research showed that there is a greater effect on attitude and value than on personality traits, though, it is found that initial assortment (i.e., similarity within couples at the beginning of marriage) rather than convergence, plays a crucial role in explaining spousal similarity.

Active assortment refers to direct effects on choosing someone similar as self in mating preferences. The data showed that there is a greater effect on political and religious attitudes than on personality traits. A follow-up issue on the cause of the finding was raised. The concepts of idiosyncratic (i.e., different individuals have different mate preferences) and consensual (i.e., a consensus of preference on some prospective mates to others) in mate preference. The data showed that mate preference on political and religious bases tend to be idiosyncratic, for instance, a Catholic would be more likely to choose a mate who is also a Catholic, as opposed to a Buddhist. Such idiosyncratic preferences produce a high level of active assortment which plays a vital role in affecting spousal similarity. In summary, active assortarity plays a large role, whereas convergence has little proof on showing such effect.

### ***Effects of similarity on interpersonal attraction***

Similarity has effects on starting a relationship through initial attraction to know each other. It is showed that high attitude similarity resulted in an important augment in initial attraction to the target person and high attitude dissimilarity resulted in a decrease of initial attraction. Similarity also promotes relationship commitment. Study on heterosexual dating couples found that similarity in intrinsic values of the couple was connected to relationship commitment and stability.

### ***Complementarity***

The model of complementarity explains whether "birds of a feather flock together" or "opposites attract".

Studies show that complementary interaction flanked by two partners increases their attractiveness to each other. Complementary partners preferred closer interpersonal relationship than non-complementary ones. Couples who reported the highest level of loving and harmonious relationship were more dissimilar in dominance than couples who scored lower in relationship quality.

Mathes and Moore found that people were more attracted to peers approximating to their ideal self than to those who did not. Specifically, low self-esteem individuals appeared more likely to desire a complementary relationship than high self-esteem people. We are attracted to people who complement to us because this allows us to maintain our preferred style of behavior, and through interaction with someone who complements our own behavior, we are likely to have a sense of self-validation and security.

### ***Similarity or complementarity?***

Principles of similarity and complementarity seem to be contradictory on the surface. In fact, they agree on the dimension of warmth. Both principles state that friendly people would prefer friendly partners.

The importance of similarity and complementarity may depend on the stage of the relationship. Similarity seems to carry considerable weight in initial attraction, while complementarity assumes importance as the relationship develops over time. Markey found that people would be more satisfied with their relationship if their partners differed from them, at least, in conditions of dominance, as two dominant persons may experience conflicts while two submissive individuals may have frustration as neither member take the initiative.

Perception and actual behavior might not be congruent with each other. There were cases that dominant people perceived their partners to be similarly dominant, yet in the eyes of independent observers, the actual behavior of their partner was submissive, in other words, complementary to them. Why do people perceive their romantic partners to be similar to them despite proof to the contrary? The cause remains unclear, pending further research.

## **PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS**

Physical attractiveness is the degree to which a person's physical traits are measured aesthetically pleasing or beautiful. The term often implies sexual attractiveness or desirability, but can also be separate from the two; for instance, adults may regard children as attractive for several reasons. There are several factors which influence one person's attraction to another, with physical characteristics being one of them. Physical attraction itself comprises universal perceptions common to all human cultures, as well as characteristics that are culturally and socially dependent, beside with individual subjective preferences.

In several cases, humans attribute positive characteristics, such as intelligence and honesty, to physically attractive people without consciously realizing it. From research done in the United States and United Kingdom, it was found that the association flanked by intelligence and physical attractiveness is stronger among men than among women. In recent times, evolutionary psychologists have tried to answer why individuals who are more

physically attractive should also on average be more intelligent, and have put forward the notion that both general intelligence and physical attractiveness may be indicators of underlying genetic fitness.

Physical attractiveness is a characteristic that suggests fertility and health. These factors contribute to the probability of survival and reproduction for continuing life on Earth. Men, on average, tend to be attracted to women who are shorter than they are, have a youthful appearance, and exhibit features such as a symmetrical face, full breasts, full lips, and a low waist-hip ratio. Women, on average, tend to be attracted to men who are taller than they are, display a high degree of facial symmetry, masculine facial dimorphism, and who have broad shoulders, a relatively narrow waist, and a V-shaped torso.

### **General contributing factors**

Usually, physical attraction can be studied from a number of perspectives, including universal perceptions common to all human cultures, cultural and social characteristics, and individual subjective preferences. Additionally, the perception of attractiveness can have an important effect on how people are judged in conditions of employment or social opportunities, friendship, sexual behavior, and marriage.

Some physical features are attractive in both men and women, particularly bodily and facial symmetry, although one contrary report suggests that "absolute flawlessness" with perfect symmetry can be "disturbing". Symmetry may be evolutionarily beneficial as a sign of health because asymmetry "signals past illness or injury". One study suggested people were able to "gauge beauty at a subliminal level" through seeing only a glimpse of a picture for one-hundredth of a second. Other significant factors contain youthfulness, skin clarity and smoothness of skin; and "vivid color" in the eyes and hair. Though, there are numerous differences based on gender.

A 1921 study of the reports of college students concerning those traits in individuals which create for attractiveness and repulsiveness argued that static traits, such as beauty or ugliness of features, hold a position subordinate to groups of physical elements like expressive behavior, affectionate disposition, grace of manner, aristocratic bearing, social accomplishments, and personal habits.

### **Male physical attractiveness**

Women, on average, tend to be more attracted to men who have a relatively narrow waist, a V-shaped torso, and broad shoulders. Women also tend to be more attracted to men who are taller than they are, and display a high degree of facial symmetry, as well as relatively masculine facial dimorphism. With regard to male-male-attractiveness, one source reports that the most significant factor that attracts gay men to other males is the man's

physical attractiveness.

### ***Facial attractiveness***

#### *Sexual dimorphism*

Studies have shown that ovulating heterosexual women prefer faces with masculine traits associated with increased exposure to testosterone throughout key developmental stages, such as a broad forehead, relatively longer lower face, prominent chin and brow, chiseled jaw and defined cheekbones. The degree of differences flanked by male and female anatomical traits is described sexual dimorphism. Female respondents in the follicular phase of their menstrual cycle ( $n = 55$ ) were significantly more likely to choose a masculine face than those in menses and luteal phases ( $n = 84$ ), (or in those taking hormonal contraception). It is suggested that the masculinity of facial features is a reliable indication of good health, or, alternatively, that masculine-looking males are more likely to achieve high status. Though, the correlation flanked by attractive facial features and health has been questioned. Sociocultural factors, such as self-perceived attractiveness, status in a relationship and degree of gender-conventionality, have been reported to play a role in female preferences for male faces. Studies have found that women who perceive themselves as physically attractive are more likely to choose men with masculine facial dimorphism, than are women who perceive themselves as physically unattractive. In men, facial masculinity significantly correlates with facial symmetry—it has been suggested that both are signals of developmental stability and genetic health. One study described into question the importance of facial masculinity in physical attractiveness in men arguing that when perceived health, which is factored into facial masculinity, is discounted it creates little difference in physical attractiveness. In a cross-country study involving 4,794 women in their early twenties, a difference was found in women's average "masculinity preference" flanked by countries.

#### *Symmetry*

Symmetrical faces and bodies may be signs of good inheritance to women of child-bearing age seeking to make healthy offspring. Studies suggest women are less attracted to men with asymmetrical faces, and symmetrical faces correlate with long term mental performance and are an indication that a man has experienced "fewer genetic and environmental disturbances such as diseases, toxins, malnutrition or genetic mutations" while rising. Since achieving symmetry is a hard task throughout human growth, requiring billions of cell reproductions while maintaining a parallel structure, achieving symmetry is a visible signal of genetic health.

Studies have also suggested that women at peak fertility were more likely to fantasize in relation to men with greater facial symmetry, and other studies

have found that male symmetry was the only factor that could significantly predict the likelihood of a woman experiencing orgasm throughout sex. Women with partners possessing greater symmetry reported significantly more copulatory female orgasms than were reported through women with partners possessing low symmetry, even with several potential confounding variables controlled. This finding has been found to hold crossways different cultures. It has been argued that masculine facial dimorphism (in men) and symmetry in faces are signals advertising genetic quality in potential mates. Low facial and body fluctuating asymmetry may indicate good health and intelligence, which are desirable features. Studies have found that women who perceive themselves as being more physically attractive are more likely to favor men with a higher degree of facial symmetry, than are women who perceive themselves as being less physically attractive. It has been found that symmetrical men (and women) have a tendency to begin to have sexual intercourse at an earlier age, to have more sexual partners, and to have more one-night stands. They are also more likely to be prone to infidelity. A study of quarterbacks in the American National Football League found a positive correlation flanked by facial symmetry and salaries.

### *Body scent*

A number of double-blind studies have found that women prefer the scent of men who are rated as facially attractive. For instance, a study through Anja Rikowski and Karl Grammer had individuals rate the scent of t-shirts slept in through test subjects. The photographs of those subjects were independently rated, and Rikowski and Grammer found that both males and females were more attracted to the natural scent of individuals who had been rated through consensus as facially attractive. Additionally, it has also been shown that women have a preference for the scent of men with more symmetrical faces, and that women's preference for the scent of more symmetrical men is strongest throughout the most fertile period of their menstrual cycle. Within the set of normally cycling women, individual women's preference for the scent of men with high facial symmetry correlated with their probability of conception.

### *Genetics*

Studies have explored the genetic basis behind such issues as facial symmetry and body scent and how they influence physical attraction. In one study in which women wore men's T-shirts, researchers found that women were more attracted to the bodily scents in shirts of men who had a different type of gene section within the DNA described Major histocompatibility intricate (MHC). MHC is a large gene area within the DNA of vertebrates which encodes proteins dealing with the immune system and which influences individual bodily odors. One hypothesis is that humans are naturally attracted through the sense of smell and taste to others with *dissimilar* MHC sections,

perhaps to avoid subsequent inbreeding while increasing the genetic diversity of offspring. Further, there are studies showing that women's natural attraction for men with dissimilar immune profiles can be distorted with use of birth control pills. Other research findings involving the genetic foundations of attraction suggest that MHC heterozygosity positively correlates with male facial attractiveness. Women judge the faces of men who are heterozygous at all three MHC loci to be more attractive than the faces of men who are homozygous at one or more of these loci. Additionally, a second experiment with genotyped women raters, found these preferences were independent of the degree of MHC similarity flanked by the men and the female rater. With MHC heterozygosity independently seen as a genetic advantage, the results suggest that facial attractiveness in men may be a measure of genetic quality.

### ***Youth***

For the Romans especially, "beardlessness" and "smooth young bodies" were measured beautiful to both men and women. For Greek and Roman men, the most desirable traits of boys were their "youth" and "hairlessness". Pubescent boys were measured a socially appropriate object of male desire, while post-pubescent boys were measured to be "past the prime". This was largely in the context of pederasty (adult male interest in adolescent boys). Today, men and women's attitudes towards male beauty has changed. For instance, body hair on men may even be preferred.

### ***Age***

A 2010 OkCupid study of 200,000 of its male and female customers found that women users are, except throughout their early to mid-twenties, open to searches from both somewhat older and somewhat younger men; they have a superior potential dating pool than men until age 26. At age 20 women, in a "dramatic change", begin sending private messages to significantly older men. Another such change occurs at age 29, accompanied through an end to messages to significantly younger men. Male desirability to women peaks in the late 20s and does not fall below the average for all men until 36.

### ***Waist-to-chest ratio***

The mesomorphic physique of a slim waist, broad shoulders and muscular chest are often found to be attractive to females. Further research has shown that, when choosing a mate, the traits females look for indicate higher social status, such as dominance, resources, and protection. An indicator of health in males (a contributing factor to physical attractiveness) is the android fat distribution pattern which is categorized as more fat distributed on the upper body and abdomen, commonly referred to as the "V shape." When asked to rate other men, both heterosexual and homosexual men found low waist-to-chest ratios (WCR) to be more attractive on other men, with the gay men

showing a preference for lower WCR (more V-shaped) than the straight men.

Proof supports waist-to-chest importance in physical attractiveness: "waist-to-chest ratio plays the most significant role in the perception of male attractiveness. A leaner waist line coupled with a superior, more muscular chest and shoulders makes the popular "V" shape to the body". Other researchers found that waist to chest ratio was the largest determinant of male attractiveness, while body mass index and waist to hip ratio were not as much of a factor.

Women focus primarily on the ratio waist to chest or more specifically waist to shoulder. This is analogous to the waist to hip ratio (WHR) that men prefer. Key body image for a man in the eyes of a woman would contain big shoulders, chest, upper back, and a slim waist area. Research has additionally shown that college males had a better satisfaction with their body than college females. The research also found that when a college female's waist to hip ratio went up, their body image satisfaction decreased. The results indicate that males had significantly greater body image satisfaction than did females.

Some research has shown that body weight may have a stronger affect than WHR when it comes to perceiving attractiveness of the opposite sex. It was found that waist to hip ratio played a smaller role in body preference than body weight in regards to both sexes.

Psychologists Viren Swami and Martin J. Tovee compared female preference for male attractiveness cross culturally, flanked by Britain and Malaysia. They found that females placed more importance on WCR (and so body shape) in urban areas of Britain and Malaysia, while females in rural areas placed more importance on BMI (so weight and body size). Both WCR and BMI are indicative of male status and skill to give for offspring, as noted through evolutionary theory.

Females have been found to desire males that are normal weight and have the average WHR for a male. Females view these males as attractive and healthy. Males who had the average WHR but were overweight or underweight are not perceived as attractive to females. This suggests that WHR is not a major factor in male attractiveness, but a combination of body weight and a typical male WHR seem to be the most attractive. Research has shown that men who have a higher waist to hip ratio and a higher salary are perceived as more attractive to women.

### ***Musculature***

Men often perceive a more muscular male body as being ideal compared to what women perceive to be the ideal male body. This is due to the within-gender prestige granted through increased muscularity and within-gender competition for increased muscularity. Men perceive the attractiveness of their own musculature through the closeness their body resembles the "muscle man". This "muscle man" ideal is characterized through large muscular arms, especially biceps, a large muscular chest that tapers to their waist and broad

shoulders. The NPC (National Physique Committee) publishes rules and regulations for national level competition of Men's Physique and Women's Physique.

### ***Genitalia***

Studies based in China, England, the United States, Italy, New Zealand, Sweden, Spain, and France have suggested that women consider men more attractive whose erect penis is longer and thicker.

### ***Height and erect posture***

Females' sexual attraction towards males may be determined through the height of the man. Height in men is associated with status or wealth in several cultures (in scrupulous those where malnutrition is common), which is beneficial to women romantically involved with them. One study mannered of women's personal ads support the subsistence of this preference; the study found that in ads requesting height in a mate, 80% requested a height of 6.00 feet (1.83 m) or taller.

Recent studies have shown that heterosexual women often prefer men taller than they are, rather than a man with above average height. While women usually desire men to be at least the same height as themselves or taller, many other factors also determine male attractiveness, and the male-taller norm is not universal. Professor Adam Eyre-Walker, from the University of Sussex, has stated that there is, as yet, no proof that these preferences are evolutionary preferences, as opposed to merely cultural preferences. In a double-blind study through Graziano *et al.*, it was found that, in person, using a sample of women of normal size, they were on average most attracted to men who were of medium height (5'9"- 5'11") and less attracted to both men of shorter height (5'5"- 5'7") and men of tallest height (6'2"- 6'4").

Additionally, women seem more receptive to an erect posture than men, though both prefer it as an element of beauty. According to one study, gay men who identify as "Only Tops" tend to prefer shorter men, while gay men who identify as "Only Bottoms" tend to prefer taller men.

### ***Hairiness***

Studies based in the United States, New Zealand, and China have shown that women rate men with no trunk (chest and abdominal) hair as most attractive, and that attractiveness ratings decline as hirsutism increases. Another study, though, found that moderate amounts of trunk hair on men was most attractive, to the sample of British and Sri Lankan women. Further, a degree of hirsuteness (hairiness) and a waist-to-shoulder ratio of 0.6 is often preferred when combined with a mesomorphic physique.

In a study using Finnish women, women with hairy fathers were more likely to prefer hairy men, suggesting that preference for hairy men is either

the result of genetics or imprinting. Among gay men, another study reported gay males who identify as "Only Tops" prefer less hairy men, while gay males who identify as "Only Bottoms" prefer hairier men.

### ***Skin color***

Testosterone has been shown to darken skin color in laboratory experiments. In his foreword to Peter Frost's 2005 *Fair Women, Dark Men*, University of Washington sociologist Pierre L. van den Berghe writes: "Although virtually all cultures express a marked preference for fair female skin, even those with little or no exposure to European imperialism, and even those whose members are heavily pigmented, several are indifferent to male pigmentation or even prefer men to be darker." Despite this, the aesthetics of skin tone varies from culture to culture. Manual laborers who spent extended periods of time outside urbanized a darker skin tone due to exposure to the sun. As a consequence, an association flanked by dark skin and the lower classes urbanized. Light skin became an aesthetic ideal because it symbolized wealth. "Over time society attached several meanings to these colored differences. Including assumptions about person's race, socioeconomic class, intelligence, and physical attractiveness."

According to one study, gay men who identify as "Only Tops" tend to prefer lighter-skinned men while gay men who identify as "Only Bottoms" tend to prefer darker-skinned men.

More recent research has suggested that redder and yellower skin tones, reflecting higher levels of oxygenated blood, melanin pigment and net dietary intakes of fruit and vegetables, appears healthier, and so more attractive.

### **Female physical attractiveness**

Attractiveness research designates that heterosexual men tend to be attracted to young and beautiful women with bodily symmetry. Rather than decreasing it, modernity has only increased the emphasis men place on women's looks. Evolutionary psychologists attribute such attraction to an evaluation of the fertility potential in a prospective mate.

### ***Facial features***

Attractiveness research has attempted to determine which facial characteristics communicate attractiveness. Facial symmetry has been shown to be measured attractive in women, and men have been found to prefer full lips, a high forehead, broad face, small chin, small nose, a short and narrow jaw, high cheekbones clear, smooth skin, and wide-set eyes. The shape of the face in conditions of "how everything hangs together" is a significant determinant of beauty. A University of Toronto study found correlations flanked by facial measurements and attractiveness; researchers varied the

aloofness flanked by eyes, and flanked by eyes and mouth, in different drawings of the same female face, and had the drawings evaluated; they found there were ideal proportions perceived as attractive. These proportions (46% and 36%) were close to the average of all female profiles. Women with thick, dark limbal rings in their eyes have also been found to be more attractive. The explanation given is that because the ring tends to fade with age and medical problems, a prominent limbal ring provides an honest indicator of youth.

In another cross-cultural study, more neotenized (i.e., youthful looking) female faces were found to be most attractive to men while less neotenized female faces were found to be less attractive to men, regardless of the females' actual age. One of these desired traits was a small jaw. In a study of Italian women who have won beauty competitions, it was found that their faces had more "babyish" (pedomorphic) traits than those of the "normal" women used as a reference.

Michael R. Cunningham of the Department of Psychology at the University of Louisville found, using a panel of Asian, Hispanic and White judges, that the Asian, Hispanic and White female faces found most attractive were those that had "neonate large eyes, greater aloofness flanked by eyes, and small noses" and his study led him to conclude that "large eyes" were the most "effective" of the "neonate cues". This thought of Western beauty is shown through some Asian cultures as women strive to physically change the eyelid structure to reflect the typical Western eyelid. East Asian blepharoplasty, also recognized as the double eyelid surgery, shows the lengths Asian women will go to reach this western ideal of physical attractiveness. Cunningham also said that "shiny" hair may be indicative of "neonate vitality". Using a panel of Blacks and Whites as judges, Cunningham found more neotenous faces were perceived as having both higher "femininity" and "sociability". In contrast, Cunningham found that faces that were "low in neoteny" were judged as "intimidating". Cunningham noted a "difference" in the preferences of Asian and white judges with Asian judges preferring women with "less mature faces" and smaller mouths than the White judges. Cunningham hypothesized that this difference in preference may stem from "ethnocentrism" since "Asian faces possess those qualities", so Cunningham re-analyzed the data with "11 Asian targets excluded" and concluded that "ethnocentrism was not a primary determinant of Asian preferences." Rather than finding proof for purely "neonate" faces being most appealing, Cunningham found faces with "sexually-mature" features at the "periphery" of the face combined with "neonate" features in the "center of the face" most appealing in men and women. Upon analyzing the results of his study, Cunningham concluded that preference for "neonate features may display the least cross-cultural variability" in conditions of "attractiveness ratings" and, in another study, Cunningham concluded that there exists a large agreement on the characteristics of an attractive face.

In computer face averaging tests, women with averaged faces have been shown to be measured more attractive. This is perhaps due to average features

being more familiar and, so, more comfortable.

Commenting on the prevalence of whiteness in supposed beauty ideals in his book *White Lies: Race and the Myth of Whiteness*, Maurice Berger notes that the schematic rendering in the idealized face of a notable study mannered with American subjects had "straight hair," "light skin," "almond-shaped eyes," "thin, arched eyebrows," "a long, thin nose, closely set and tiny nostrils" and "a large mouth and thin lips", though the author of the study noted the consistency flanked by his results and those mannered on other races. As Dr. Liu Jieyu says in the article *White Collar Beauties*, "The criterion of beauty is both arbitrary and gendered. The implicit consensus is that women who have fair skin and a slim figure with symmetrical facial features are pretty." All of these requirements are socially constructed and force people to change themselves to fit these criterion.

One psychologist speculated there were two opposing principles of female beauty: prettiness and rarity. So on average, symmetrical features are one ideal, while unusual, stand-out features are another. A study performed through the University of Toronto found that the most attractive facial dimensions were those found in the average female face. Though, that scrupulous University of Toronto study looked only at white women.

### ***Youthfulness***

Cross-cultural data shows that the reproductive success of women is tied to their youth and physical attractiveness such as the pre-industrial Sami where the most reproductively successful women were 15 years younger than their man. One study covering 37 cultures showed that, on average, a woman was 2.5 years younger than her male partner, with the age difference in Nigeria and Zambia being at the distant extreme of 6.5 to 7.5 years. As men age, they tend to seek a mate who is ever younger.

25% of harmony's male customers over the age of 50 request to only be matched with women younger than 40. A 2010 OkCupid study of 200,000 users found that female desirability to its male user's peaks at age 21, and falls below the average for all women at 31. After age 26 men have a superior potential dating pool than women on the site; through 48 their pool is approximately twice as large. The median 31 years-old male user searches for women aged 22 to 35, while the median 42 years-old male searches for women 27 to 45. The age skew is even greater with messages to other users; the median 30 years-old male messages teenage girls as often as women his own age, while mostly ignoring women a few years older than him. Excluding the most and least beautiful 10% of women, though, women's attractiveness does not change flanked by 18 and 40.

Pheromones (detected through female hormone markers) reflects female fertility and the reproductive value mean. As females age, the estrogen-to-androgen production ratio changes and results in female faces to appear more and more masculine (therefore appearing less "attractive"). In a small (n=148)

study performed in the United States using male college students at one university, the mean age expressed as ideal for a wife was found to be 16.87 years old, while 17.76 was the mean ideal age for a brief sexual encounter; though, the study sets up a framework where "taboos against sex with young girls" are purposely diminished, and biased their sample through removing any participant over the age of 30, with a mean participant age of 19.83. In a study of penile tumescence, men were found most aroused through pictures of young adult females.

### ***Breasts***

Research has shown that most men enjoy the sight of female breasts. Some studies indicate that men prefer large, firm breasts, while a contradictory study of British undergraduates found men preferring small breasts on women. Smaller breasts were widely associated with youthfulness. Cross-culturally, another study found "high variability" concerning the ideal breast size. Some researchers in the United Kingdom have speculated that a preference for superior breasts may have urbanized in Western societies because women with superior breasts tend to have higher levels of the hormones estuarial and progesterone, which both promote fertility.

A study showed that men prefer symmetrical breasts. Breast symmetry may be particularly sensitive to developmental disturbances and the symmetry differences for breasts are large compared to other body parts. Women who have more symmetrical breasts tend to have more children.

### ***Buttocks***

Biological anthropologist, Helen B. Fisher of the Center for Human Evolution Studies in the Department of Anthropology of Rutgers University, said that, "perhaps, the fleshy, rounded buttocks... attracted males throughout rear-entry intercourse." Bobbi S. Low et al. of the School of Natural Resources and Environment at the University of Michigan, said the female "buttocks evolved in the context of females competing for the attention and parental commitment of powerful resource-controlling males" as an "honest display of fat reserves" that could not be confused with another type of tissue, although T. M. Caro, professor in the Center for Population Biology and the Department of Wildlife, Fish, and Conservation Biology, at University of California, Davis, rejected that as being a necessary conclusion, stating that female fatty deposits on the hips improve "individual fitness of the female", regardless of sexual selection.

### ***Body mass***

Body Mass Index (BMI) is a significant determinant to the perception of beauty. Even though the Western ideal is for a thin woman, some cultures prefer plumper women, which has been argued to support that attraction for a

scrupulous BMI merely is a cultural artifact. The attraction for a proportionate body also influences an appeal for erect posture. One cross-cultural survey comparing body-mass preferences among 300 of the most thoroughly studied cultures in the world showed that 81% of cultures preferred a female body size that in English would be described as "plump".

Availability of food influences which female body size is attractive which may have evolutionary reasons. Societies with food scarcities prefer superior female body size than societies having plenty of food. In Western society males who are hungry prefer a superior female body size than they do when not hungry.

In the United States, women overestimate men's preferences for thinness in a mate. In one study, American women were asked to choose what their ideal build was and what they thought the build most attractive to men was. Women chose slimmer than average figures for both choices. When American men were independently asked to choose the female build most attractive to them, the men chose figures of average build. This designates that women may be misled as to how thin men prefer women to be. Some speculate that thinness as a beauty standard is one method in which women judge each other and that thinness is viewed as prestigious for within-gender evaluations of other women. A reporter surmised that thinness is prized among women as a "sign of independence, strength and achievement." Some implicated the fashion industry for the promulgation of the notion of thinness as attractive.

### ***Waist-hip ratio***

Ethnic groups vary with regard to their ideal waist-to-hip ratio for women, ranging from 0.6 in China, to 0.8 or 0.9 in parts of South America and Africa, and divergent preferences based on ethnicity, rather than nationality, have also been noted. A cross-cultural analysis that found isolated peoples preferring high WHR (0.9) over a low WHR (0.7) suggested that several such "cross-cultural" tests "may have only reflected the pervasiveness of Western media"; though several evolutionary psychologists consider preference for low WHR is a signal for fertility and biologically based.

### ***Height***

Most men tend to be taller than their female partner. It has been found that, in Western societies, most men prefer shorter women and tend to view taller women as less attractive and people view heterosexual couples where the woman is taller to be less ideal. Women who are 0.7 to 1.7 standard deviations below the mean female height have been reported to be the most reproductively successful, since fewer tall women get married compared to shorter women. Though, in other ethnic groups, such as the Hadza, study has found that height is irrelevant in choosing a mate.

### ***Leg-to-body ratio***

A study using Polish participants through Sorokowski found 5% longer legs than an individual used as a reference was measured most attractive. The study concluded this preference might stem from the influence of leggy runway models. The Sorokowski study was criticized for using a picture of the same person with digitally altered leg lengths which Dr. Marco Bertamini felt were unrealistic. Another study using British and American participants, found "mid-ranging" leg-to-body ratios to be most ideal.

A study through Swami et al. of British male and female undergraduates showed a preference for men with legs as long as the rest of their body and women with 40% longer legs than the rest of their body. The researcher concluded that this preference might be influenced through American culture where long legged women are portrayed as more attractive. The Swami et al. study was criticized for using a picture of the same person with digitally altered leg lengths which Marco Bertamini felt were unrealistic. Bertamini also criticized the Swami study for only changing the leg length while keeping the arm length constant. Bertamini's own study which used stick figures mirrored Swami's study, though, through finding a preference for leggier women.

According to some studies, most men prefer women with small feet, such as in ancient China where foot binding was practiced.

### ***Hair***

Men have been found to prefer long-haired women. An evolutionary psychology explanation for this is that malnutrition and deficiencies in minerals and vitamins causes loss of hair or hair changes. Hair so designates health and nutrition throughout the last 2–3 years. Lustrous hair is also often a cross-cultural preference.

One study reported non-Asian men to prefer blondes and Asian men to prefer black-haired women.

### ***Movement patterns***

The method an individual moves can indicate health and even age and influence attractiveness. In a study that reflected the views of 700 individuals, through a series of 5 studies, 3 of which involved animated representations of people walking. The physical attractiveness perceived increased through about 50 percent when women walked with a hip sway.

### ***Skin tone and skin radiance***

A preference for lighter-skinned women has remained prevalent over time, even in cultures without European get in touch with, though exceptions have been found. Anthropologist Peter Frost stated that since higher-ranking men

were allowed to marry the perceived more attractive women, who tended to have fair skin, the upper classes of a society usually tended to develop a lighter complexion than the lower classes through sexual selection. In contrast, one study on men of the Bikosso tribe in Cameroon found no preference for attractiveness of females based on lighter skin color, bringing into question the universality of earlier studies that had exclusively focused on skin color preferences among non-African populations.

Today, skin bleaching is not uncommon in parts of the world such as Africa, and a preference for lighter-skinned women usually holds true for African Americans, Latin Americans, and Asians. One exception to this has been in contemporary Western culture, where tanned skin used to be associated with the sun-exposed manual labor of the lower-class, but has usually been measured more attractive and healthier since the mid-20th century.

More recent work has extended skin color research beyond preferences for lightness, arguing that redder and yellower skin has healthier appearance. These preferences have been attributed to higher levels of red oxygenated blood in the skin, which is associated with aerobic fitness and lack of cardiac and respiratory illnesses, and to higher levels of yellow-red antioxidant carotenoids in the skin, indicative of more fruit and vegetables in the diet and, perhaps more efficient immune and reproductive systems.

Research has additionally shown that skin radiance or glowing skin designates health, therefore skin radiance influences perception of beauty and physical attractiveness.

### ***Eye color***

A study where photographs of many women were manipulated (so that their faces would be shown with either the natural eye color of the model or with the other color) showed that, in average, brown-eyed men have no preference concerning eye color, but blue-eyed men prefer women of the same eye color.

### ***Other determinants***

There has been research suggesting that women at the "fertile stage" of the menstrual cycle appear more attractive to single unattached men, but it is not clear exactly how this process works. Another study comparing British and American subjects concluded that there is a correlation flanked by intelligence and physical attraction. The study concluded that intelligence is a big factor in physical attractiveness, particularly in males.

### **Possible gender differences for preferences**

For both men and women, there appear to be universal criteria of

attractiveness both within and crossways cultures and ethnic groups. When considering long term relationships, some studies have concluded that men place a higher emphasis on physical attractiveness in a partner than women do. On the other hand, some studies have found little difference flanked by men and women in conditions of the weight they place on physical characteristics when they are choosing partners for short-term relationships, in scrupulous with regard to their implicit, as opposed to explicitly articulated, preferences. Other recent studies continue to find sex differences for long-term relationships.

Some evolutionary psychologists, including David Buss, have argued that this long-term relationship difference may be consequence of ancestral humans who selected partners based on secondary sexual characteristics, as well as general indicators of fitness which allowed for greater reproductive success as a result of higher fertility in those partners, although a male's skill to give resources for offspring was likely signaled less through physical features. It is argued that the most prominent indicator of fertility in women is youth, while the traits in a man which enhance reproductive success are proxies for his skill to accrue resources and protect.

Studies have shown that women pay greater attention to physical traits than they do directly to earning capability or potential to commit, including muscularity, fitness and masculinity of features; the latter preference was observed to vary throughout a woman's period, with women preferring more masculine features throughout the late-follicular (fertile) phase of the menstrual cycle. Additionally, women process physical attractiveness differently, paying attention to both individual features and the aesthetic effect of the whole face. A 2003 study in the area concluded that heterosexual women are about equally aroused when viewing men or women. Heterosexual men were only aroused through women. This study verified arousal in the test subjects through connecting them to brain imaging devices. Notably, the same study reported arousal for women upon viewing animals mating.

It has been shown that women prefer men with a more masculine facial dimorphism throughout the fertile period of the menstrual cycle and men with a more feminine facial dimorphism throughout other parts of the cycle. This distinction supports the sexy son hypothesis, which posits that it is evolutionarily advantageous for women to select potential fathers who are more genetically attractive, rather than the best caregivers.

Bonnie Adrian's book, *Framing the Bride*, discusses the emphasis Taiwanese brides place on physical attractiveness for their wedding photographs. Globalization and western ideals of beauty have spread and have become more prevalent in Asian societies where brides go through hours of hair and makeup to "transform everyday women with their individual characteristics into generic look-alike beauties in three hours' time." These brides go through hours of makeup to transform themselves into socially-constructed beauty.

According to strategic pluralism theory, men may have correspondingly

evolved to pursue reproductive strategies that are contingent on their own physical attractiveness. More physically attractive men accrue reproductive benefits from spending more time seeking multiple mating partners and relatively less time investing in offspring. In contrast, the reproductive effort of physically less attractive men, who so will not have the same mating opportunities, is better allocated either to investing heavily in accruing resources, or investing in their mates and offspring and spending relatively less time seeking additional mates.

### **Facial similarity and racial bias**

Many studies have suggested that people are usually attracted to people who look like them and they usually evaluate faces that exhibit features of their own ethnic or racial group as being more attractive. Although both men and women use children's "facial resemblance" to themselves in "attractiveness judgments," a greater percentage of women in one study (37% n=30) found hypothetical children whose faces were "self-morphs" of themselves as most attractive when compared to men (30% n=23). Though, one report in *The Guardian* suggested there was a "Caucasian beauty standard" spreading worldwide because of the proliferation of the Western entertainment industry.

The more similar a judged person is toward the judging person, the more the former is liked. Though, this effect can be reversed. This might depend on how attractiveness is conceptualized: similar members (compared to dissimilar ones) of the opposite sex are judged as more likable in a prosocial sense. Again, findings are more ambiguous when looking for the desiring, pleasure related component of attractiveness. This might be influenced through the measure one uses (subjective ratings can differ from the method one actually reacts) and through situational factors: while men usually prefer women whose face resembles their own, this effect can reverse under stress, when dissimilar females are preferred.

### **Social effects**

Perceptions of physical attractiveness contribute to generalized assumptions based on those attractions. Individuals assume that when someone is beautiful, they have several other positive attributes that create the attractive person more likeable. This is also described the 'beautiful-is-good' effect. Crossways cultures, what is beautiful is assumed to be good; attractive people are assumed to be more extroverted, popular, and happy. This could lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, as from a young age, attractive people receive more attention that helps them develop these characteristics. In one study, beautiful people were found to be usually happier than less beautiful or plain people, perhaps because these outgoing personality traits are connected

to happiness, or perhaps because beauty led to increased economic benefits which partially explained the increased happiness. In another study testing first impressions in 56 female and 17 male participants at University of British Columbia, personality traits of physically attractive people were recognized more positively and more accurately than those who were less physically attractive. It was explained that people pay closer attention to those they find physically beautiful or attractive, and therefore perceiving attractive individuals with greater distinctive accuracy. The study believes this accuracy to be subjective to the eye of the beholder.

Though, attractiveness varies through society; in ancient China, a small foot was measured attractive, so foot binding was practiced through confining young girls' feet in tightly bound shoes to prevent the feet from rising to normal size. In England, women used to wear corsets that severely constricted their breathing and damaged vital internal organs, in order to achieve a visual effect of an exaggeratedly low Waist-to-Hip ratio.

People create judgments of physical attractiveness based on what they see, but also on what they know about person. Specifically, perceptions of beauty are malleable such that information about person's personality traits can influence one's assessment of another person's physical beauty. A 2007 study had participant's first rate pictures for attractiveness. After doing distracting math problems, participants saw the pictures again, but with information about person's personality. When participants learned that a person had positive personality characteristics (e.g., smart, funny, kind), that person was seen as more physically attractive. Conversely, a person with negative personality characteristics (e.g., materialistic, rude, untrustworthy) was seen as less physically attractive. This was true for both females and males.

Physical attractiveness can have several effects. A survey mannered through London Guildhall University of 11,000 people showed that those who subjectively describe themselves as physically attractive earn more income than others who would describe themselves as less attractive. People who described themselves as less attractive earned, on average, 13% less than those who described themselves as more attractive, while the penalty for being overweight was approximately 5%. According to further research done on the correlation flanked by looks and earnings in men, the punishment for unattractiveness is greater than the benefits of being attractive. Though, in women the punishment is found to be equal to the benefits. Another study suggests that more physically attractive people are significantly more likely on average to earn considerably higher wages. Differences in income due to attractiveness was much more pronounced for men rather than women, and held true for all ranges of income.

It is significant to note that other factors such as self-confidence may explain or influence these findings as they are based on self-reported attractiveness as opposed to any sort of objective criteria; though, as one's self-confidence and self-esteem are largely learned from how one is regarded through his/her peers while maturing, even these thoughts would suggest a

important role for physical appearance. One writer speculated that "the distress created in women through the spread of unattainable ideals of female beauty" might perhaps be connected to increasing incidence of depression.

Several have asserted that certain advantages tend to come to those who are perceived as being more attractive, including the skill to get better jobs and promotions; getting better treatment from authorities and the legal system; having more choices in romantic partners and, so, more power in relationships; and marrying into families with more money. Those who are attractive are treated and judged more positively than those who are measured unattractive, even through those who know them. Also, attractive individuals behave more positively than those who are unattractive. One study found that teachers tend to expect that children who are attractive are more intelligent, and are more likely to progress further in school. They also consider these students to be more popular. Voters choose political candidates who are more attractive over those who are less attractive. Men and women use physical attractiveness as a measure of how "good" another person is. In 1946, Solomon Asch coined the Implicit Personality Theory, meaning that the attendance of one trait tends to imply the subsistence of other traits. This is also recognized as the halo effect. Research suggests that those who are physically attractive are thought to have more socially desirable personalities and lead better lives in general. This is also recognized as the "what-is-beautiful-is-good effect." Discrimination against or prejudice towards others based on their appearance is sometimes referred to as lookism.

Some researchers conclude that little difference exists flanked by men and women in conditions of sexual behavior. Symmetrical men and women have a tendency to begin to have sexual intercourse at an earlier age, to have more sexual partners, to engage in a wider diversity of sexual activities, and to have more one-night stands. They are also prone to infidelity and are more likely to have open relationships. Additionally, they have the most reproductive success. So, their physical characteristics are most likely to be inherited through future generations.

Concern for improving physical attractiveness has led several persons to consider alternatives such as cosmetic surgery. It has led scientists working with related disciplines such as computer imaging and mathematics to conduct research to suggest methods to surgically alter a face in conditions of distances flanked by facial features, to create it closer to an ideal face with "agreed-upon standards of attractiveness", through using algorithms to suggest an alternative which still resembles the current face. One research study found that cosmetic surgery as a method to "boost earnings" was "not profitable in a monetary sense." Perhaps people try to look more beautiful because they think it would create them happier. Though, research shows that physical attractiveness seems to only have a marginal effect on happiness.

## **SOCIOMETRY**

Sociometry is a quantitative method for measuring social relationships. It was urbanized through psychotherapist Jacob L. Moreno in his studies of the relationship flanked by social structures and psychological well-being.

The term sociometry relates to its Latin etymology, *socius* meaning companion, and *metrum* meaning measure. Jacob Moreno defined sociometry as "the inquiry into the evolution and organization of groups and the position of individuals within them." He goes on to write "As the ...science of group organization, it attacks the problem not from the outer structure of the group, the group surface, but from the inner structure. " Sociometric explorations reveal the hidden structures that provide a group its form: the alliances, the subgroups, the hidden beliefs, the forbidden agendas, the ideological agreements, the 'stars' of the show".

He urbanized sociometry within the new sciences, although its ultimate purpose is transcendence and not science. 'Through making choices based on criteria, overt and energetic, Moreno hoped that individuals would be more spontaneous, and organisations and groups structures would become fresh, clear and lively'.

One of Moreno's innovations in sociometry was the development of the sociogram, a systematic method for graphically representing individuals as points/nodes and the relationships flanked by them as lines/arcs. Moreno, who wrote extensively of his thinking, applications and findings, also founded a journal entitled *Sociometry*.

Within sociology, sociometry has two main branches: research sociometry, and applied sociometry. Research sociometry is action research with groups exploring the socio-emotional networks of relationships using specified criteria e.g. Who in this group do you want to sit beside you at work? Who in the group do you go to for advice on a work problem? Who in the group do you see providing satisfying leadership in the pending project? Sometimes described network explorations, research sociometry is concerned with relational patterns in small (individual and small group) and superior populations, such as organizations and neighborhoods. Applied sociometrists utilize a range of methods to assist people and groups review, expand and develop their existing psycho-social networks of relationships. Both fields of sociometry exist to produce through their application, greater spontaneity and creativity of both individuals and groups.

### **Moreno's Criteria for Sociometric Tests**

In 'Sociometry, Experimental Method and the Science of Society: An Approach to a New Political Orientation', Moreno describes the depth to which a group needs to go for the method to be "sociometric". The term for him had a qualitative meaning and did not apply unless some group process criteria were met. One of these is that there is acknowledgment of the difference flanked by process dynamics and the manifest content. To quote

Moreno: "there is a deep discrepancy flanked by the official and the secret behavior of members". Moreno advocates that before any "social program" can be proposed, the sociometrist has to "take into account the actual constitution of the group."

Other criteria are: the Rule of adequate motivation: "Every participant should feel about experiment that it is in his (or her) own cause . . . that it is an opportunity for him (or her) to become an active agent in matters concerning his (or her) life situation." and the Rule of "gradual" inclusion of all extraneous criteria. Moreno speaks here of "the slow dialectic process of the sociometric experiment".

### **Anthropological applications of sociometry**

Given that sociometry is concerned with group allegiances and cleavages, it is not surprising that sociometric methods have been used to study ethnic relationships and method individuals identify with ethnic groups. For instance, using sociometric research, Joan Criswell investigated white-black relationships in US classrooms, Gabriel Weimann researched ethnic relationships in Israel, and James Page has investigated intra-ethnic and inter-ethnic identification within the Pacific.

### **Other approaches and software**

Other approaches were urbanized in last decades, such as Social Network Analysis, or Sociomapping. Freeware as well as commercial software was urbanized for analysis of groups and their structure, such as Pajek, Keyhubs or InFlow. All these approaches share much of their basic principles with Sociometry. Face book is a social network service and website which is largely based on the sociometry of its users.

## **COMMUNICATION**

Social psychology traditionally has been defined as the study of the methods in which people affect, and are affected through, others. Communication is one of the primary means through which people affect one another, and, in light of this, one might expect the study of communication to be a core topic of social psychology, but historically that has not been the case. No doubt there are several reasons. Among them is the fact that communication is a intricate and multidisciplinary concept, and, crossways the many disciplines that use the term, there is no consensus on exactly how it should be defined. It is a significant theoretical construct in such otherwise dissimilar fields as cell biology, computer science, ethology, linguistics, electrical engineering, sociology, anthropology, genetics, philosophy, semiotics, and literary theory. And although there is a core of meaning

common to the method the term is used in these disciplines, the particularities differ enormously. What cell biologists call communication bears little resemblance to what anthropologists study under the same rubric. A concept used in so several different methods runs the risk of becoming an amorphous catch-all term lacking precise meaning, and that already may have happened to communication. As the sociologist Thomas Luckmann has observed, "Communication has come to mean all things to all men".

Despite this, for social psychologists communication (or some equivalent notion) remains an indispensable concept. It's hard to imagine serious discussions of such topics as social influence, small group interaction, social perception, attitude change, or interpersonal relations that ignore the role communication plays. Yet such discussions typically pay little attention to the specific mechanisms through means of which the process works.

An instructive parallel can be drawn flanked by the method contemporary social psychologists think about communication and the method an earlier generation of social psychologists thought about cognition. It was not unusual in the late 1970s, when social cognition was beginning to emerge as a significant theoretical focus, for social psychologists of an earlier generation to observe that social psychology had always been cognitive in its orientation, so that a focus on social cognition was really nothing new. There was some truth to this claim. Even in the heyday of Behaviorism, social psychologists really never accepted the doctrine that all behavior, social and otherwise, could be explained without invoking what Behaviorists disparagingly termed "mentalistic" concepts. Indeed, the concepts that defined the field (attitude, belief, expectation, value, impressions, etc.) were cognitive through their very nature. The point is well taken as distant as it goes, but it fails to acknowledge the differences flanked by the implicitly cognitive outlook of the earlier social psychology and the study of social cognition. In the former, it was assumed that cognition underpinned virtually all of the processes studied. The skill to think, perceive, keep in mind, categorize and so forth were assumed to be capacities of the normal person, and little attention was paid to the specific details of how these mental operations were accomplished. In order for messages to change attitudes, people necessity be able to understand them, keep in mind them, think about, etc. It was assumed that people could and would do these things; exactly how was not thought to be of great consequence. In contrast, underlying the study of social cognition (as that term has come to be understood) is the assumption that the *scrupulous* mechanisms through which cognition is accomplished are they significant determinants of the outcome of the process. For instance, particularities of the structure of human memory, and of the processes of encoding and retrieval, can affect what will or will not be recalled. One consequence of this difference in emphasis can be seen in an instance. In the earlier social psychology, negative stereotypes of disadvantaged minorities were understood as instances of motivated perceptual distortion deriving from majority group members' needs, interests and goals. More recently, though, it has been shown that such

stereotypes can arise simply from the method people process information about others, and that invidious motives or conflict are unnecessary for their development. While motivation and conflict almost certainly do often play a role in the development of pejorative group stereotypes, apparently it is not a necessary condition for their emergence.

In much the same method, contemporary social psychologists acknowledge that communication mediates much social behavior, but seem willing to assume that it gets accomplished, and display little interest in how it occurs. Their focus is on content, not process. As a result, they may fail to appreciate how the communication situation their experiment represents affects the behavior they observe. Recent work through Schwarz, Strack and their colleagues illustrates some consequences of this oversight. For instance, Strack et al. elicited subjects' responses to two similar items: (1) "How happy are you with your life as a whole?" and "How satisfied are you with your life as a whole?" For one group of subjects, the two questions were asked in different, unrelated questionnaires; for the other group, the questions were asked in the same questionnaire, set off from the other items in a box labeled "Here are some questions about your life." Other things being equal, one would expect responses to the two items to be highly correlated. Although *happy* and *satisfied* are not synonymous, they bear several similarities in meaning; certainly there are circumstances that can create one happy but not satisfied, and vice versa, but people who are happy with their lives tend also to be satisfied with their lives. When the two items were presented in separate questionnaires the correlation flanked by responses to them was 0.96, which almost certainly is close to the items' test-retest reliability. Though, when the two items were presented successively in the same questionnaire, the correlation was significantly *lower* —  $r = 0.65$ . At first glance, the result seems anomalous. Other things being equal, the closer two items in a questionnaire are, the greater the correlation we would expect flanked by their responses to be. Though, as Strack et al. point out, viewing the two items from a communicative perspective alters these expectations considerably. Consider the following question-answer sequences as part of dyadic conversations:

- Conversation A
  - Q: How is your family?
  - A: . . . . .
- Conversation B
  - Q: How is your wife?
  - A: . . . . .
- Q: How is your family?
  - A: . . . . .

In Conversation A, we would expect the respondent to take his wife's well-being into account in answering the question "How is your family?" but in Conversation B we would expect he to exclude his wife's well-being when answering the same question, since that already had been established. Schwarz

and Strack derive this prediction from a set of *conversational maxims* -- rules to which participants in conversations necessarily conform in order to understand, and be understood through, their coparticipants. To the extent that respondents in the Strack et al. experiment responded to the questionnaire as though it were governed through the conversational maxims, presenting the Happiness and Satisfaction questions in the same context induced respondents to base their answers on the *distinctive* characteristics of the two content domains. Failing to understand the questionnaire as a kind of communication situation could yield quite misleading results. The social psychologists of an earlier generation who assumed that cognition underpinned the processes they studied were using a model of cognition, though sketchily detailed it may have been. In several cases this implicit cognitive model was adequate to support a serviceable explanation of the social behavior under consideration, but in other cases their understanding of the social process was defective because it rested on inappropriate assumptions about underlying cognitive process. In a similar method, contemporary social psychologists who assume that communication is involved in the phenomena they study, but do not consider the specific details of its operation, are implicitly assuming a model of communication. In most cases the assumptions they create about communication may be adequate, but when they are not, the understanding of the phenomena under examination will be defective. For this cause, we think it behooves all social psychologists, regardless of their substantive interests, to be familiar with the processes that underlie communication.

## **Process**

Communication can best be summarized as the transmission of a message from a sender to a receiver in an understandable manner. The importance of effective communication is immeasurable in the world of business and in personal life. From a business perspective, effective communication is an absolute necessity, because it commonly accounts for the difference flanked by success and failure or profit and loss. It has become clear that effective business communication is critical to the successful operation of modern enterprise. Every business person needs to understand the fundamentals of effective communication.

Currently, companies in the United States and abroad are working toward the realization of total quality management. Effective communication is the most critical component of total quality management. The manner in which individuals perceive and talk to each other at work about different issues is a major determinant of the business success. It has proven been proven that poor communication reduces quality, weakens productivity, and eventually leads to anger and a lack of trust among individuals within the organization.

The communication process is the guide toward realizing effective communication. It is through the communication process that the sharing of a

common meaning flanked by the sender and the receiver takes place. Individuals that follow the communication process will have the opportunity to become more productive in every aspect of their profession. Effective communication leads to understanding.

The communication process is made up of four key components. Those components contain encoding, medium of transmission, decoding, and feedback. There are also two other factors in the process, and those two factors are present in the form of the sender and the receiver. The communication process begins with the sender and ends with the receiver.

The sender is an individual, group, or organization who initiates the communication. This source is initially responsible for the success of the message. The sender's experiences, attitudes, knowledge, ability, perceptions, and culture influence the message. "The written words, spoken words, and nonverbal language selected are paramount in ensuring the receiver interprets the message as planned through the sender". All communication begins with the sender.

The first step the sender is faced with involves the encoding process. In order to convey meaning, the sender necessarily begins encoding, which means translating information into a message in the form of symbols that represent ideas or concepts. This process translates the ideas or concepts into the coded message that will be communicated. The symbols can take on numerous forms such as, languages, words, or gestures. These symbols are used to encode ideas into messages that others can understand.

When encoding a message, the sender has to begin through deciding what he/she wants to transmit. This decision through the sender is based on what he/she believes about receiver's knowledge and assumptions, beside with what additional information he/she wants the receiver to have. It is significant for the sender to use symbols that are familiar to the planned receiver. A good method for the sender to improve encoding their message, is to mentally visualize the communication from the receiver's point of view.

To begin transmitting the message, the sender uses some kind of channel (also described a medium). The channel is the means used to convey the message. Most channels are either oral or written, but currently visual channels are becoming more common as technology expands. Common channels contain the telephone and a diversity of written forms such as memos, letters, and reports. The effectiveness of the several channels fluctuates depending on the characteristics of the communication. For instance, when immediate feedback is necessary, oral communication channels are more effective because any uncertainties can be cleared up on the spot. In a situation where the message necessarily be delivered to more than a small group of people, written channels are often more effective. Although in several cases, both oral and written channels should be used because one supplements the other.

If a sender relays a message through an inappropriate channel, its message may not reach the right receivers. That is why senders need to keep in mind

that selecting the appropriate channel will greatly assist in the effectiveness of the receiver's understanding. The sender's decision to utilize either an oral or a written channel for communicating a message is influenced through many factors. The sender should ask him or herself different questions, so that they can select the appropriate channel. Is the message urgent? Is immediate feedback needed? Is documentation or a permanent record required? Is the content complicated, controversial, or private? Is the message going to someone inside or outside the organization? What oral and written communication skills does the receiver possess? Once the sender has answered all of these questions, they will be able to choose an effective channel.

After the appropriate channel or channels are selected, the message enters the decoding stage of the communication process. Decoding is mannered through the receiver. Once the message is received and examined, the incentive is sent to the brain for interpreting, in order to assign some type of meaning to it. It is this processing stage that constitutes decoding. The receiver begins to interpret the symbols sent through the sender, translating the message to their own set of experiences in order to create the symbols meaningful. Successful communication takes place when the receiver correctly interprets the sender's message.

The receiver is the individual or individuals to whom the message is directed. The extent to which this person comprehends the message will depend on a number of factors, which contain the following: how much the individual or individuals know about topic, their receptivity to the message, and the relationship and trust that exists flanked by sender and receiver. All interpretations through the receiver are influenced through their experiences, attitudes, knowledge, skills, perceptions, and culture. It is similar to the sender's relationship with encoding.

Feedback is the final link in the chain of the communication process. After getting a message, the receiver responds in some method and signals that response to the sender. The signal may take the form of a spoken comment, a long sigh, a written message, a smile, or some other action. "Even a lack of response, is in a sense, a form of response". Without feedback, the sender cannot confirm that the receiver has interpreted the message correctly.

Feedback is a key component in the communication process because it allows the sender to evaluate the effectiveness of the message. Feedback ultimately gives an opportunity for the sender to take corrective action to clarify a misunderstood message. "Feedback plays a significant role through indicating important communication barriers: differences in background, different interpretations of words, and differing emotional reactions".

The communication process is the perfect guide toward achieving effective communication. When followed properly, the process can usually assure that the sender's message will be understood through the receiver. Although the communication process seems simple, it in essence is not. Certain barriers present themselves throughout the process. Those barriers are factors that have a negative impact on the communication process. Some common barriers

contain the use of an inappropriate medium (channel), incorrect grammar, inflammatory words, words that conflict with body language, and technical jargon. Noise is also another common barrier. Noise can occur throughout any stage of the process. Noise essentially is anything that distorts a message through interfering with the communication process. Noise can take several forms, including a radio playing in the background, another person trying to enter your conversation, and any other distractions that prevent the receiver from paying attention.

Successful and effective communication within an organization stems from the implementation of the communication process. All members within an organization will improve their communication skills if they follow the communication process, and stay absent from the different barriers. It has been proven that individuals that understand the communication process will blossom into more effective communicators, and effective communicators have a greater opportunity for becoming a success.

## **Channel**

In telecommunications and computer networking, a communication channel, or channel, refers either to a physical transmission medium such as a wire, or to a logical connection over a multiplexed medium such as a radio channel. A channel is used to convey an information signal, for instance a digital bit stream, from one or many *senders* (or transmitters) to one or many *receivers*. A channel has a certain capability for transmitting information, often measured through its bandwidth in Hz or its data rate in bits per second.

Communicating data from one location to another requires some form of pathway or medium. These pathways, described communication channels, use two types of media: cable (twisted-pair wire, cable, and fiber-optic cable) and broadcast (microwave, satellite, radio, and infrared). Cable or wireline media use physical wires of cables to transmit data and information. Twisted-pair wire and coaxial cables are made of copper, and fiber-optic cable is made of glass.

In information theory, a channel refers to a theoretical *channel model* with certain error characteristics. In this more general view, a storage device is also a kind of channel, which can be sent to (written) and received from (read).

## **Channel models**

A channel can be modeled physically through trying to calculate the physical processes which modify the transmitted signal. For instance in wireless communications the channel can be modeled through calculating the reflection off every object in the environment. A sequence of random numbers might also be added in to simulate external interference and/or electronic noise in the receiver.

Statistically a communication channel is usually modeled as a triple

consisting of an input alphabet, an output alphabet, and for each pair  $(i, o)$  of input and output elements a transition probability  $p(i, o)$ . Semantically, the transition probability is the probability that the symbol  $o$  is received given that  $i$  was transmitted over the channel.

Statistical and physical modeling can be combined. For instance in wireless communications the channel is often modeled through a random attenuation (recognized as fading) of the transmitted signal, followed through additive noise. The attenuation term is a simplification of the underlying physical processes and captures the change in signal power over the course of the transmission. The noise in the model captures external interference and/or electronic noise in the receiver. If the attenuation term is intricate it also describes the relative time a signal takes to get through the channel. The statistics of the random attenuation are decided through previous measurements or physical simulations.

Channel models may be continuous channel models in that there is no limit to how precisely their values may be defined.

Communication channels are also studied in a discrete-alphabet setting. This corresponds to abstracting a real world communication system in which the analog->digital and digital->analog blocks are out of the control of the designer. The mathematical model consists of a transition probability that identifies an output distribution for each possible sequence of channel inputs. In information theory, it is common to start with memory less channels in which the output probability distribution only depends on the current channel input.

A channel model may either be digital (quantified, e.g. binary) or analog.

### *Digital channel models*

In a digital channel model, the transmitted message is modeled as a digital signal at a certain protocol layer. Underlying protocol layers, such as the physical layer transmission technique, is replaced through a simplified model. The model may reflect channel performance measures such as bit rate, bit errors, latency/delay, delay jitter, etc. Examples of digital channel models are:

- Binary symmetric channel (BSC), a discrete memory less channel with a certain bit error probability
- Binary bursty bit error channel model, a channel "with memory"
- Binary erasure channel (BEC), a discrete channel with a certain bit error discovery (erasure) probability
- Packet erasure channel, where packets are lost with a certain packet loss probability or packet error rate
- Arbitrarily varying channel (AVC), where the behavior and state of the channel can change randomly

### *Analog channel models*

In an analog channel model, the transmitted message is modeled as an analog signal. The model can be a linear or non-linear, time-continuous or time-discrete (sampled), memory less or dynamic (resulting in burst errors), time-invariant or time-variant (also resulting in burst errors), baseband, passband (RF signal model), real-valued or intricate-valued signal model. The model may reflect the following channel impairments:

- Noise model, for instance
  - Additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) channel, a linear continuous memory less model
  - Phase noise model
- Interference model, for instance cross-talk (co-channel interference) and intersymbol interference (ISI)
- Distortion model, for instance a non-linear channel model causing intermodulation distortion (IMD)
- Frequency response model, including attenuation and phase-shift
- Group delay model
- Modelling of underlying physical layer transmission techniques, for instance a intricate-valued equivalent baseband model of modulation and frequency response
- Radio frequency propagation model, for instance
  - Log-aloofness path loss model
  - Fading model, for instance Rayleigh fading, Ricean fading, log-normal shadow fading and frequency selective (dispersive) fading
  - Doppler shift model, which combined with fading results in a time-variant system
  - Ray tracing models, which effort to model the signal propagation and distortions for specified transmitter-receiver geometries, terrain types, and antennas
  - Mobility models, which also causes a time-variant system

### *Types of communications channels*

- Digital (discrete) or analog (continuous) channel
- Baseband and passband channel
- Transmission medium, for instance a fiber channel
- Multiplexed channel
- Computer network virtual channel
- Simplex communication, duplex communication or half duplex communication channel
- Return channel
- Uplink or downlink (upstream or downstream channel)

- Broadcast channel, unicast channel or multicast channel

### ***Channel performance measures***

These are examples of commonly used channel capability and performance measures:

- Spectral bandwidth in Hertz
- Symbol rate in baud, pulses/s or symbols/s
- Digital bandwidth bit/s measures: gross bit rate (signalling rate), net bit rate (information rate), channel capability, and maximum throughput
- Channel utilization
- Link spectral efficiency
- Signal-to-noise ratio measures: signal-to-interference ratio,  $E_b/N_0$ , carrier-to-interference ratio in decibel
- Bit-error rate (BER), packet-error rate (PER)
- Latency in seconds: propagation time, transmission time
- Delay jitter

### ***Multi-terminal channels, with application to cellular systems***

In networks, as opposed to point-to-point communication, the communication media is shared flanked by multiple nodes (terminals). Depending on the type of communication, different terminals can cooperate or interfere on each other. In general, any intricate multi-terminal network can be measured as a combination of simplified multi-terminal channels. The following channels are the principal multi-terminal channels which was first introduced in the field of information theory:

- A point-to-multipoint channel, also recognized as broadcasting medium (not to be confused with broadcasting channel): In this channel, a single sender transmits multiple messages to different destination nodes. All wireless channels except radio links can be measured as broadcasting media, but may not always give broadcasting service. The downlink of a cellular system can be measured as a point-to-multipoint channel, if only one cell is measured and inter-cell co-channel interference is neglected. Though, the communication service of a phone call is unicasting.
- Multiple access channels: In this channel, multiple senders transmit multiple possible different messages over a shared physical medium to one or many destination nodes. This requires a channel access scheme, including a media access control (MAC) protocol combined with a multiplexing scheme. This channel model has applications in the uplink of the cellular networks.

- Relay channel: In this channel, one or many intermediate nodes (described relay, repeater or gap filler nodes) cooperate with a sender to send the message to an ultimate destination node. Relay nodes are measured as a possible add-on in the upcoming cellular standards like 3GPP Long Term Evolution (LTE).
- Interference channel: In this channel, two different senders transmit their data to different destination nodes. Hence, the different senders can have a possible cross-talk or co-channel interference on the signal of each other. The inter-cell interference in the cellular wireless communications is an instance of the interference channel. In spread spectrum systems like 3G, interference also occur inside the cell if non-orthogonal codes are used.
- A unicasting channel is a channel that gives a unicasting service i.e. that sends data addressed to one specific user. An established phone call is an instance.
- A broadcasting channel is a channel that gives a broadcasting service i.e. that sends data addressed to all users in the network. Cellular network examples are the paging service as well as the Multimedia Broadcast Multicast Service.
- A multicasting channel is a channel where data is addressed to a group of subscribing users. LTE examples are the Physical Multicast Channel (PMCH) and MBSFN (Multicast Broadcast Single Frequency Network).

From the above 4 basic multi-terminal channels, multiple access channel is the only one whose capability region is recognized. Even for the special case of the Gaussian scenario, the capability region of the other 3 channels except the broadcast channel is unknown in general.

## **Types**

People communicate with each other in a number of methods that depend upon the message and its context in which it is being sent. Choice of communication channel and your style of communicating also affects communication. So, there are diversity of types of communication.

Types of communication based on the communication channels used are:

- Verbal Communication
- Nonverbal Communication

### ***Verbal Communication***

Verbal communication refers to the form of communication in which message is transmitted verbally; communication is done through word of mouth and a piece of writing. Objective of every communication is to have

people understand what we are trying to convey. In verbal communication keep in mind the acronym KISS(keep it short and simple).

When we talk to others, we assume that others understand what we are saying because we know what we are saying. But this is not the case. usually people bring their own attitude, perception, emotions and thoughts about topic and hence makes barrier in delivering the right meaning.

So in order to deliver the right message, you necessity put yourself on the other side of the table and think from your receiver's point of view. Would he understand the message? how it would sound on the other side of the table?

Verbal Communication is further divided into:

- Oral Communication
- Written Communication

### *Oral Communication*

In oral communication, Spoken words are used. It comprises face-to-face conversations, speech, telephonic conversation, video, radio, television, voice over internet. In oral communication, communication is influence through pitch, volume, speed and clarity of speaking.

Advantages of Oral communication are:

- It brings quick feedback.
- In a face-to-face conversation, through reading facial expression and body language one can guess whether he/she should trust what's being said or not.

Disadvantage of oral communication:

- In face-to-face discussion, user is unable to deeply think about what he is delivering, so this can be counted as a

### *Written Communication*

In written communication, written signs or symbols are used to communicate. A written message may be printed or hand written. In written communication message can be transmitted via email, letter, report, memo etc. Message, in written communication, is influenced through the vocabulary & grammar used, writing style, precision and clarity of the language used.

Written Communication is most common form of communication being used in business.:

- So, it is measured core among business skills. Memos, reports, bulletins, job descriptions, employee manuals, and electronic mail are the types of written communication used for internal communication. For communicating with external environment in writing, electronic mail, Internet Web sites, letters, proposals, telegrams, faxes, postcards, contracts, advertisements, brochures, and news releases are used.

Advantages of written communication comprises:

- Messages can be edited and revised several time before it is actually sent.
- Written communication give record for every message sent and can be saved for later study.
- A written message enables receiver to fully understand it and send appropriate feedback.

Disadvantages of written communication comprises:

- Unlike oral communication, Written communication doesn't bring instant feedback.
- It take more time in composing a written message as compared to word-of-mouth. and number of people struggles for writing skill.

### ***Nonverbal Communication***

Nonverbal communication is the sending or getting of wordless messages. We can say that communication other than oral and written, such as gesture, body language, posture, tone of voice or facial expressions, is described nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication is all about body language of speaker. Nonverbal communication helps receiver in interpreting the message received. Often, nonverbal signals reflects the situation more accurately than verbal messages. Sometimes nonverbal response contradicts verbal communication and hence affect the effectiveness of message. Nonverbal communication have the following three elements:

- Appearance: Speaker: clothing, hairstyle, neatness, use of cosmetics.  
Nearby: room size, lighting, decorations, furnishings
- Body Language: facial expressions, gestures, postures
- Sounds: Voice Tone, Volume, Speech rate

### ***Types of Communication Based on Purpose and Style***

Based on style and purpose, there are two main categories of communication and they both bears their own characteristics. Communication types based on style and purpose are:

- Formal Communication
- Informal Communication

### ***Formal Communication***

In formal communication, certain rules, conventions and principles are followed while communicating message. Formal communication occurs in formal and official style. Usually professional settings, corporate meetings, conferences undergoes in formal pattern. In formal communication, use of slang and foul language is avoided and correct pronunciation is required. Authority lines are needed to be followed in formal communication.

### *Informal Communication*

Informal communication is done using channels that are in contrast with formal communication channels. It's just a casual talk. It is established for societal affiliations of members in an organization and face-to-face discussions. It happens among friends and family. In informal communication use of slang words, foul language is not restricted. Usually, informal communication is done orally and using gestures. Informal communication, Unlike formal communication, doesn't follow authority lines. In an organization, it helps in finding out staff grievances as people express more when talking informally. Informal communication helps in building relationships.

### **Barriers to communication**

Barriers to effective communication can retard or distort the message and intention of the message being conveyed which may result in failure of the communication process or an effect that is undesirable. These contain filtering, selective perception, information overload, emotions, language, silence, communication apprehension, gender differences and political correctness. This also comprises a lack of expressing "knowledge-appropriate" communication, which occurs when a person uses ambiguous or intricate legal words, medical jargon, or descriptions of a situation or environment that is not understood through the recipient.

### ***Physical barriers***

Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment. An instance of this is the natural barrier which exists if staff are situated in different buildings or on different sites. Likewise, poor or outdated equipment, particularly the failure of management to introduce new technology, may also cause problems. Staff shortages are another factor which regularly causes communication difficulties for an organization. While distractions like background noise, poor lighting or an environment which is too hot or cold can all affect people's morale and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective communication.

### ***System design***

System design faults refer to problems with the structures or systems in place in an organization. Examples might contain an organizational structure which is unclear and so creates it confusing to know whom to communicate with. Other examples could be inefficient or inappropriate information systems, a lack of supervision or training, and a lack of clarity in roles and

responsibilities which can lead to staff being uncertain about what is expected of them.

### ***Attitudinal barriers***

Attitudinal barriers come about as a result of problems with staff in an organization. These may be brought about, for instance, through such factors as poor management, lack of consultation with employees, personality conflicts which can result in people delaying or refusing to communicate, the personal attitudes of individual employees which may be due to lack of motivation or dissatisfaction at work, brought about by insufficient training to enable them to carry out scrupulous tasks, or just resistance to change due to entrenched attitudes and ideas, it may be as a result delay in payment at the end of the month.

### ***Ambiguity of words/phrases***

Words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator necessity ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It is better if such words are avoided through using alternatives whenever possible.

### ***Individual linguistic skill***

The use of jargon, hard or inappropriate words in communication can prevent the recipients from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. Though, research in communication has shown that confusion can lend legitimacy to research when persuasion fails.

### ***Physiological barriers***

These may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused—for instance—through ill health, poor eyesight or hearing difficulties.

### ***Presentation of information***

Presentation of information is significant to aid understanding. Simply put, the communicator necessity consider the audience before making the presentation itself and in cases where it is not possible the presenter can at least try to simplify his/her vocabulary so that the majority can understand.

## **Interpersonal communication and behavior**

Interpersonal communication is exchange of information flanked by two or more people. It is also an area of study. Related skills are learned and can be

improved. Throughout interpersonal communication there is message sending and message getting. This can be mannered using both direct and indirect methods. Successful interpersonal communication is when the message senders and the message receivers understand the message.

## ***Theories***

### *Uncertainty reduction theory*

Uncertainty reduction theory comes from the socio-psychological perspective. It addresses the basic process of how we gain knowledge about other people. According to the theory people have difficulty with uncertainty, they want to be able to predict behavior and so they are motivated to seek more information about people.

The theory argues that strangers, upon meeting, go through certain steps and checkpoints in order to reduce uncertainty about each other and form a thought of whether one likes or dislikes the other. As we communicate we are making plans to accomplish our goals. At highly uncertain moments we become more vigilant and rely more on data accessible in the situation. When we are less certain we lose confidence in our own plans and create contingency plans. The theory also says that higher levels of uncertainty make aloofness flanked by people and that non-verbal expressiveness tends to help reduce uncertainty.

Constructs contain level of uncertainty, nature of the relationship and methods to reduce uncertainty. Underlying assumptions contain that an individual will cognitively process the subsistence of uncertainty and take steps to reduce it. The boundary circumstances for this theory are that there necessity be some kind of outside social situation trigger and internal cognitive process.

According to the theory we reduce uncertainty in three methods:

1. Passive strategies: observing the person.
2. Active strategies: asking others about person or looking up info.
3. Interactive strategies: asking questions, self-disclosure.

### *Social exchange theory*

Social exchange theory falls under the symbolic interaction perspective. The theory predicts, explains and describes when and why people reveal certain information about themselves to others. The social exchange theory uses Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) theory of interdependence. This theory states that "relationships grow, develop, deteriorate, and dissolve as a consequence of an unfolding social-exchange process, which may be conceived as a bartering of rewards and costs both flanked by the partners and flanked by members of the partnership and others". Social exchange theory argues the

major force in interpersonal relationships is the satisfaction of both people's self-interest. Theorists say self-interest is not necessarily a bad thing and that it can actually enhance relationships.

According to the theory human interaction is like an economic transaction, in that you may seek to maximize rewards and minimize costs. You will reveal information about yourself when the cost-rewards ratio is acceptable to you. As long as rewards continue to outweigh costs a couple will become increasingly intimate through sharing more and more personal information. The constructs of this theory contain disclosure, relational expectations, and perceived rewards or costs in the relationship. Levinger discussed marital success as dependent on all the rewarding things within the relationship, such as emotional security and sexual fulfillment. He also argued that marriages either succeed or fail based on the barriers to leave the relationship, like financial hardships, and the attendance of alternative attractions, like infidelity. Levinger stated that marriages will fail when the attractions of the partners lessen, the barriers to leave the spouse are weak, and the alternatives outside of the relationship are appealing.

The underlying assumptions contain that humans weigh out rewards versus costs when developing a relationship. The boundary circumstances for this theory are that at least two people necessarily be having some type of interaction. Social exchange also ties in closely with social penetration theory.

### *Symbolic interaction*

Symbolic interaction comes from the sociocultural perspective in that it relies on the creation of shared meaning through interactions with others. This theory focuses on the methods in which people form meaning and structure in society through interactions. People are motivated to act based on the meanings they assign to people, things, and events.

Symbolic interaction argues the world is made up of social objects that are named and have socially determined meanings. When people interact over time they come to shared meaning for certain conditions and actions and therefore come to understand events in scrupulous methods. There are three main concepts in this theory: society, self and mind.

- Society: Social acts (which make meaning) involve an initial gesture from one individual, a response to that gesture from another and a result.
- Self: Self-image comes from interaction with others based on others' perceptions. A person creates sense of the world and defines their "self" through social interactions. One's self is an important object and like all social objects it is defined through social interactions with others.
- Mind: Your skill to use important symbols to respond to yourself creates thinking possible. You describe objects in conditions of how

you might react to them. Objects become what they are through our symbolic minding process.

Constructs for this theory contain creation of meaning, social norms, human interactions, and signs and symbols. An underlying assumption for this theory is that meaning and social reality are shaped from interactions with others and that some kind of shared meaning is reached. The boundary circumstances for this theory are there necessity be numerous people communicating and interacting and therefore assigning meaning to situations or objects.

### *Relational dialectics theory*

In order to understand relational dialectics theory, we necessity first understand specifically what encompasses the term *discourse*. So, discourses are "systems of meaning that are uttered whenever we create intelligible utterances aloud with others or in our heads when we hold internal conversations". Now, taking the term *discourse* and coupling it with Relational Dialectics Theory, it is assumed that this theory "emerges from the interplay of competing discourses".

This theory also poses the primary assumption that, "Dialogue is simultaneously unity and difference". So, these assumptions insinuate the concept of creating meaning within ourselves and others when we communicate, though, it also shows how the meanings within our conversations may be interpreted, understood, and of course misunderstood. Hence, the creation and interpretations we find in our communicative messages may make strains in our communicative acts that can be termed as 'dialectical tensions.'

So, if we assume the stance that all of our discourse, whether in external conversations or internally within ourselves, has competing properties, then we can take relational dialectics theory and look at what the competing discourses are in our conversations, and then analyze how this may have an effect on several characteristics of our lives. Numerous examples of this can be seen in the daily communicative acts we participate in. Though, dialectical tensions within our discourses can most likely be seen in interpersonal communication due to the close nature of interpersonal relationships. The well recognized proverb "opposites attract, but Birds of a feather flock together" exemplifies these dialectical tensions.

#### *The three relational dialectics*

In order to understand relational dialectics theory, one necessity also be aware of the assumption that there are three different types of relational dialectics. These consist of connectedness and separateness, certainty and uncertainty, and openness and closedness.

#### *Connectedness and separateness*

Most individuals naturally desire to have a close bond in the interpersonal relationships we are a part of. Though, it is also assumed that no relationship

can be enduring without the individuals involved within it also having their time alone to themselves. Individuals who are only defined through a specific relationship they are a part of can result in the loss of individual identity.

#### *Certainty and uncertainty*

Individuals desire a sense of assurance and predictability in the interpersonal relationships they are a part of. Though, they also desire having diversity in their interactions that come from having spontaneity and mystery within their relationships as well. Much research has shown that relationships which become bland and .. monotonous are not desirable.

#### *Openness and closedness*

In close interpersonal relationships, individuals may often feel a pressure to reveal personal information. This assumption can be supported if one looks at the postulations within social penetration theory, which is another theory used often within the study of communication. This tension may also spawn a natural desire to keep an amount of personal privacy from other individuals. The thrash about in this sense, illustrates the essence of relational dialectics.

#### *Coordinated management of meaning*

Coordinated management of meaning is a theory assuming that two individuals engaging in an interaction are each constructing their own interpretation and perception behind what a conversation means. A core assumption within this theory comprises the belief that all individuals interact based on rules that are expected to be followed while engaging in communication. "Individuals within any social situation first want to understand what is going on and apply rules to figure things out".

There are two different types of rules that individuals can apply in any communicative situation. These contain constitutive and regulative rules.

- Constitutive rules "are essentially rules of meaning used through communicators to interpret or understand an event or message".
- Regulative rules "are essentially rules of action used to determine how to respond or behave".

An instance of this can be seen if one thinks of a hypothetical situation in which two individuals are engaging in conversation. If one individual sends a message to the other, the message receiver necessity then take that interaction and interpret what it means. Often this can be done on an approximately instantaneous level because the interpretation rules applied to the situation are immediate and simple. Though, there are also times when one may have to search for an appropriate interpretation of the 'rules' within an interaction. This simply depends on each communicator's previous beliefs and perceptions within a given context and how they can apply these rules to the current communicative interaction. Significant to understand within the constructs of

this theory is the fact that these "rules" of meaning "are always chosen within a context". Furthermore, the context of a situation can be understood as a framework for interpreting specific events.

The authors of this theory consider that there are a number of different context an individual can refer to when interpreting a communicative event. These contain the relationship context, the episode context, the self-concept context, and the archetype context.

- Relationship context: This context assumes that there are mutual expectations flanked by individuals who are members of a group.
- Episode context: This context simply refers to a specific event in which the communicative act is taking place.
- Self-concept context: This context involves one's sense of self, or an individual's personal 'definition' of him/herself.
- Archetype context: This context is essentially one's image of what his or her belief consists of concerning general truths within communicative exchanges.

Furthermore, Pearce and Cronen consider that these specific contexts exist in a hierarchical fashion. This theory assumes that the bottom level of this hierarchy consists of the communicative act. After that, the hierarchy exists within the relationship context, then the episode context, followed through the self-concept context, and finally the archetype context.

### *Social penetration theory*

Urbanized through Irwin Altman and Dallas Taylor, the Social Penetration Theory was made to give conceptual framework that describes the development in interpersonal relationships. This theory refers to the reciprocity of behaviors flanked by two people who are in the process of developing a relationship. These behaviors can vary from verbal/nonverbal exchange, interpersonal perceptions, and ones use of the environment approximately them. The behaviors vary based on the different levels of intimacy that a relationship encounters.

### *"Onion Theory"*

This theory is best recognized as the "onion theory". This analogy suggests that like an onion, personalities have "layers" that start from the outside (what the public sees) all the method to the core (ones private self). Often, when a relationship begins to develop, it is customary for the individuals within the relationship to undergo a process of self-disclosure. As people divulge information about themselves their "layers" begin to peel, and once those "layers" peel absent they cannot go back; just like you can't put the layers back on an onion.

There are four different stages that social penetration theory encompasses. These stages contain the orientation, exploratory affective exchange, affective exchange, and stable exchange.

- Orientation stage: At first, strangers exchange very little amounts of information and they are very careful in their interactions.
- Exploratory affective stage: After that, individuals become somewhat more friendly and relaxed with their communication styles.
- Affective exchange: In the third stage, there is a high amount of open communication flanked by individuals and typically these relationships consist of close friends or even romantic partners.
- Stable stage: The final stage, simply consists of sustained expressions of open and personal types of interaction.

If a person speeds through the stages and happens to share too much information too fast, the receiver may view that interaction as negative and a relationship flanked by the two is less likely to form.

### *Relational patterns of interaction theory*

Relational Patterns of Interaction Theory of the cybernetic custom, studies how relationships are defined through peoples' interaction throughout communication. Gregory Bateson, Paul Watzlawick, et al. laid the groundwork for this theory and went on to become recognized as the Palo Alto Group. Their theory became the foundation from which scholars in the field of communication approached the study of relationships.

### *Ubiquitous communication*

The Palo Alto Group maintains that a person's attendance alone results in them, consciously or not, expressing things about themselves and their relationships with others (i.e., communicating). A person cannot avoid interacting, and even if they do, their avoidance may be read as a statement through others. This ubiquitous interaction leads to the establishment of "expectations" and "patterns" which are used to determine and explain relationship types.

### *Expectations*

Individuals enter communication with others having established expectations for their own behavior as well as the behavior of those they are communicating with. These expectations are either reinforced throughout the interaction, or new expectations are established which will be used in future interactions. These new expectations are created through new patterns of interaction, established expectations are a result of established patterns of interaction.

### *Patterns of interaction*

Established patterns of interaction are created when a trend occurs concerning how two people interact with each other. There are two patterns of scrupulous importance to the theory which form two kinds of relationships.

- Symmetrical relationships: These relationships are established when the pattern of interaction is defined through two people responding to one and other in the same method. This is a common pattern of interaction within power struggles.
- Complementary relationships: These relationships are established when the pattern of interaction is defined through two people responding to one and other in opposing methods. An instance of such a relationship would be when one person is argumentative while the other is quiet.

#### *Relational control*

Relational control refers to who, within a relationship, is in control of it. The pattern of behavior flanked by partners over time, not any individual's behavior, defines the control within a relationship. Patterns of behavior involve individuals' responses to others' assertions.

There are three kinds of responses:

- One-down responses are submissive to, or accepting of, another's assertions.
- One-up responses are in opposition to, or counter, another's assertions.
- One-crossway responses are neutral in nature.

Seth Weiss and Marian Houser add to relational control in a teacher/student context. "Students communicating with instructors for relational purposes hope to develop or maintain a personal relationship; functional reasons aim to seek more information presented and discussed through instructors; students communicating to explain a lack of responsibility utilize an excuse-making motive; participatory motives demonstrate understanding and interest in the class or course material; and students communicating for sycophantic purposes hope to create a favorable impression on their instructor."

#### *Complementary exchanges*

A complementary exchange occurs when a partner asserts a one-up message which the other partner responds to with a one-down response. When complementary exchanges are regularly occurring within a relationship, and the parties at each end of the exchange tend to remain uniform, it is a good indication of a complementary relationship existing.

#### *Symmetrical exchanges*

Symmetrical exchanges occur when one partner's assertion is countered with a reflective response. So, when a one-up assertion is met with a one-up response, or when a one-down assertions is met with a one-down response, a symmetrical exchange occurs. When symmetrical exchanges are regularly occurring within a relationship, it is a good indication of a symmetrical

relationship existing.

### *Identity management theory*

Falling under the Socio-Cultural custom and urbanized through Tadasu Todd Imahori and William R. Cupach, identity-management theory explains the establishment, development, and maintenance of identities within relationships, as well as changes which occur to identities due to relationships.

### *Establishing identities*

People establish their identities (or faces), and their partners, through a process referred to as "facework". Everyone has a desired identity which they're constantly working towards establishing. This desired identity can be both threatened and supported through attempting to negotiate a relational identity (the identity one shares with their partner). So, our desired identity is directly influenced through our relationships, and our relational identity through our desired individual identity.

### *Cultural influence*

Identity-management pays important attention to intercultural relationships and how they affect the relational and individual identities of those involved. How partners of different cultures negotiate with each other, in an effort to satisfy desires for adequate autonomous identities and relational identities, is significant to identity-management theory. People take different approaches to coping with this problem of cultural influence.

### *Tensions within intercultural relationships*

Identity freezing occurs when one partner feels like they're being stereotyped and not recognized as a intricate individual. This tends to occur early on in relationships, prior to partners becoming well acquainted with each other, and threatens individuals' identities. Showing support for oneself, indicating positive characteristics of one's cultural identity, and having a good sense of humor are examples of coping mechanisms used through people who feel their identities are being frozen. It is also not uncommon for people in such positions to react negatively, and cope through stereotyping their partner, or totally avoiding the tension.

When tension is due to a partner feeling that their cultural identity is being ignored it is referred to as a nonsupport problem. This is a threat to one's face, and individuals often cope with it in the same methods people cope with identity freezing.

Self-other face dialectic occurs when one partner wants to, but has trouble with, supporting their partner's cultural identity while also asserting their own. They cope with this through standing their ground, giving in, alternating in their support of each identity, and also through avoiding the issue totally.

### *Relational stages of identity management*

Identity management is an ongoing process which Imahori and Cupach describe as having three relational stages. Typically, each stage is dealt with differently through couples. The trial stage occurs at the beginning of an intercultural relationship when partners are beginning to explore their cultural differences. Throughout this stage each partner is attempting to determine what cultural identities they want for the relationship. At this stage cultural differences are important barriers to the relationship and it is critical for partners to avoid identity freezing and nonsupport. Throughout this stage individuals are more willing to risk face threats to establish a balance necessary for the relationship.

The enmeshment stage occurs when a relational identity emerges with established common cultural features. Throughout this stage the couple becomes more comfortable with their communal identity and the relationship in general.

The renegotiation stage sees couples working through identity issues and drawing on their past relational history while doing so. A strong relational identity has been established through this stage and couples have mastered dealing with cultural differences. It is at this stage that cultural difference become part of the relationships and not a tension within them.

#### *Communication privacy management theory*

Of the socio-cultural custom, communication privacy management theory is concerned with how people negotiate openness and privacy in concern to communicated information. This theory focuses on how people in relationships manage boundaries which separate the public from the private.

##### *Boundaries*

An individual's private information is protected through the individual's boundaries. The permeability of these boundaries are ever changing, and allow certain parts of the public, access to certain pieces of information belonging to the individual. This sharing occurs only when the individual has weighed their need to share the information against their need to protect themselves. This risk assessment is used through couples when evaluating their relationship boundaries. The disclosure of private information to a partner may result in greater intimacy, but it may also result in the discloser becoming more vulnerable.

##### *Co-ownership of information*

When someone chooses to reveal private information to another person they are making that person a co-owner of the information. Co-ownership comes with rules, responsibilities, and rights which the discloser of the information and receiver of it negotiate. Examples of such rules would be: Can the information be disclosed? When can the information be disclosed? To whom can the information be disclosed? And how much of the information can be disclosed? The negotiation of these rules can be intricate, the rules can

be explicit as well as implicit, and they can be violated.

#### *A rule based process*

Petronio views boundary management as a rule based process, not an individual decision. These rules, much like an individual's decision to disclose information, are urbanized using the following criteria: risk assessment, cultural expectations, gender differences, personal motivations and situational demands. Certain criteria can be more prominent when managing boundaries depending on the context. For instance, if you're described to testify in a court of law against the co-owner of information, and the cost of not testifying would be imprisonment, the situational demands are the primary criteria you'll use for managing your boundaries. Some rules are more fixed than others but they're all capable of changing under the right circumstances.

#### *Boundary turbulence*

What Petronio refers to as "boundary turbulence" occurs when rules are not mutually understood through co-owners, and when a co-owner of information deliberately violates the rules. This usually results in some kind of conflict, is not uncommon, and often results in one party becoming more apprehensive about future revelation of information to the violator.

#### *Cognitive dissonance theory*

The theory of cognitive dissonance, part of the Cybernetic Custom, explains how humans are consistency seekers and effort to reduce their dissonance, or discomfort, in new situations. The theory was urbanized in the 1950s through Leon Festinger.

When individuals encounter new information or new experiences they categorize the information based on their preexisting attitudes, thoughts, and beliefs. If the new encounter does not coincide with their preexisting assumptions, then dissonance is likely to occur. When dissonance does occur, individuals are motivated to reduce the dissonance they experience through avoiding situations that would either cause the dissonance or augment the dissonance. For this cause, cognitive dissonance is measured a drive state that encourages motivation to achieve consonance and reduce dissonance. An instance of cognitive dissonance would be if someone holds the belief that maintaining a healthy lifestyle is significant, but they don't regularly work out or eat healthy, they may experience dissonance flanked by their beliefs and their actions. If there is a important amount of dissonance, they may be motivated to change their attitudes and work out more or eat healthier foods. They may also be inclined to avoid situations that will point out the fact that their attitudes and beliefs are inconsistent, such as avoiding the gym or not reading health reports.

#### *The selection process*

- Selective exposure is a method for reducing dissonance that only seeking information that is consonant with ones current beliefs, thoughts, or actions.
- Selective attention is a method for reducing dissonance through only paying attention to scrupulous information or parts of information that is consonant with current beliefs, thoughts, or actions.
- Selective interpretation is a method for reducing dissonance through interpreting ambiguous information so that it seems constant with ones beliefs, thoughts, or actions.
- Selective retention when an individual only remembers information that is constant with their current beliefs.

#### *Types of cognitive relationships*

According to cognitive dissonance theory there are three types of cognitive relationships: consonant relationships, dissonant relationships, and irrelevant relationships. Consonant relationships are when two elements, such as your beliefs and actions, are in equilibrium with each other or coincide. Dissonant relationships are when two elements are not in equilibrium and cause dissonance. Irrelevant relationships are when two elements do not possess a meaningful relationship with one another, they are unrelated and do not cause dissonance.

#### *Attribution theory*

Attribution theory is part of the sociopsychological custom and explains how individuals go through a process that creates inferences about observed behavior. Attribution theory assumes that we create attributions, or social judgments, as a method to clarify or predict behavior. Attribution theory assumes that we are sense-making creatures and that we draw conclusions of the actions that we observe.

#### *Steps to the attribution process*

1. The first step of the attribution process is to observe the behavior or action.
2. The second step is to create judgments of interactions and the intention of that scrupulous action.
3. The last step of the attribution process is making the attribution which will be either internal, where the cause is related to the person, or external, where the cause of the action is circumstantial.

An instance of this process is when a student fails a test, an observer may choose to attribute that action to 'internal' causes, such as insufficient study, laziness, or have a poor work ethic. The action might also be attributed to 'external' factors such as the difficulty of the test, or real-world stressors that

led to distraction.

We also create attributions of our own behavior. Using this same instance, if it were you who received a failing test score you might either create an internal attribution, such as "I just can't understand this material", or you could create an external attribution, such as "this test was just too hard."

#### *Fundamental attribution error*

As we create attributions, we may fall victim to the fundamental attribution error which is when we overemphasize internal attributions for others and underestimate external attributions.

#### *Actor-observer bias*

Similar to the fundamental attribution error, we may overestimate external attributions for our own behavior and underestimate internal attributions.

#### *Expectancy violations theory*

Expectancy violations theory is part of the sociopsychological custom, and explains the relationship flanked by non-verbal message production and the interpretations people hold for those non-verbal behaviors. Individuals hold certain expectations for non-verbal behavior that is based on the social norms, past experience and situational characteristics of that behavior. When expectations are either met or violated, we create assumptions of the behavior and judge them to be positive or negative.

#### *Arousal*

When a deviation of expectations occurs there is an increased interest in the situation, also recognized as arousal. There are two types of arousal:

- Cognitive arousal our mental awareness of expectancy deviations
- Physical arousal challenges our body faces as a result of expectancy deviations.

#### *Reward valence*

When an expectation is not met, we hold scrupulous perceptions as to whether or not that violation is measured rewarding. How an individual evaluates the interaction will determine how they view the positive or negative impact of the violation.

#### *Proxemics*

A important focus of expectancy violations theory is the concept of proxemics, or the study of individual use of personal space. There are four types of proxemic zones:

- Intimate aloofness: 0–18 inches
- Personal aloofness: 18 inches – 4 feet
- Social aloofness: 4–12 feet
- Public aloofness: 12 feet or more

### *Dyadic communication and Relationships*

Dyadic communication is the part of a relationship that calls for "something to happen". Partners will either talk or argue with one another throughout this point of a relationship to bring about change. When partners talk or argue with one another the relationship may still survive at this point.

Bochner (1979) stresses inherent dialectic in interpersonal communication as the key to healthy marital dyads. He proposes that people in intimate relationships are looking to find an equilibrium point flanked by needing to be open with their partner and needing to protect their partner from the consequences of this openness. So, the communication in romantic, long-term relationships can be viewed as a balance flanked by hiding and revealing. Taking this theory even further, communication within marriages can be viewed as a continuing refinement and elimination of conversational material. The partners of the marriage will still have things to discuss, but as their relationship and communication grows, they can decide when to not speak about an issue, because in intricate relationships like marriage, anything can become an issue.

- Conflict resolution: Sillars (1980) and Roloff (1976) expressed that conflict resolution strategies can be categorized as pro-social or anti-social in nature. When an individual is presented with an interpersonal conflict, they can decide how they want to deal with it. They can avoid (anti-social), compete (anti-social), or cooperate (pro-social). It has been learned that one who avoids conflict is less capable of solving problems because they are more constricted. Avoidance has negative effects on dyads.
- The Couples Coping Enhancement Training (CCET): This program is based on stress, coping, and research on dyads. The focus is on individual and dyadic coping to help promote satisfaction within marriage and to help reduce distress within marriages. CCET states three significant factors for dyads being successful when they enter counseling programs. Firstly, the dyad's skill to cope with daily stress is a main factor in determining the success or failure of their relationship. Couples need to be educated about ways to manage daily stress so that this stress is not placed on their partner or on their relationship. Secondly, couples who enter counseling to help their relationship necessity stay in counseling to continue to get reinforcement and encourage about practicing their new methods of communication. Sustained counseling will help the couple to maintain their new strategies. Lastly, couples should create use of technology within their counseling. They should use the Internet and seek help online in addition to their counseling program. Having technology that can help couples with immediate problems is a very useful thing.
- Parenting: Several theorists have studied how the relationship flanked by the husband and wife greatly affects the relationship flanked by the

parent and child. There have been numerous studies done that show how hard it is to maintain a positive and healthy parent-child relationship when the marriage flanked by the parents is failing. “Spillover,” emotional transmission from one family relationship to another, is a likely explanation as to why parents have trouble fostering a good relationship with their children when there are problems within their marriage.

- **New Parenthood and Marital Quality:** New parenthood is a time where there are several adjustments within a family and these adjustments can put a lot of stress on marital dyads. How a couple deals with first-time parenthood directly correlates to their marital satisfaction, amount of conflict within their marriage, and the perceptions of themselves. Studies show that transitioning into parenting leads to more marital conflicts and less marital satisfaction. When marital dyads have a child, their once dyadic dynamic relationships quickly changes to a triadic relationship, creating a shift in roles. New topics for discussion flanked by the married couple, such as household labor, finances, and child care responsibilities, can lead to major conflicts. It is significant for couples to identify methods that may help them maintain marital satisfaction while coping with becoming parents.
- **Teaching:** Good communication flanked by teachers and young students is thought to improve the test scores of the students. Some parents of students at The William T. Harris School were interviewed and stated that they can tell how good a teacher is just through watching them in the classroom setting. Observing how teachers talk to their students and how they promote communication flanked by their students can lead to conclusions about how well these students will score on standardized tests. Parents of students at The William T. Harris School have admitted that they do not always trust the publicized rankings of teachers, though, they stated that there are strong similarities flanked by their children’s grades and their impressions of their children’s teachers.

## **REVIEW QUESTIONS**

- What is comparatively more significant: conventionality or independence, and why?
- Write a brief note on the Galileo’s saying that ‘sun was stationary and the earth revolved round the sun’ in light of Asch’s paradigm.
- From a fresher student’s point of view, can ragging in educational institutions be explained in conditions of conventionality and independence?
- If you have to study conventionality on similar lines with Asch, what experimental study would you plan in a given social setting of your

choice? Provide complete details in conditions of variables, experimental controls and proposed procedure

- What is sociometry?
- What is communication?

## **GROUP PROCESS AND LEADERSHIP**

### **STRUCTURE**

- Learning objectives
- Group Process
- Review Questions

### **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- Describe group;
- Explain the meaning of group;
- Describe the characteristics of the group;
- Elucidate the types of group;
- Explain individual's behaviour in groups;
- Understand the leaders and leadership.

### **GROUP PROCESS**

Group process refers to how an organization's members work together to get things done. Typically, organizations spend a great deal of time and energy setting and striving to reach goals, but provide little consideration to what is happening flanked by and to the group's greatest resource - its members. While working hard to achieve results, it is critical that members' needs be addressed. Membership in an organization is as much an opportunity to develop self confidence, refine skills and create friends as it is to support a cause, fundraise or educate the campus community. All of these can be done simultaneously, but most likely will not just happen on their own.

Group process can occur from within the group, outside of the group and anytime of year. Effective organizations take a close look at how members work together, which roles they fill and whether members are contributing equally. Through group process, observation and analysis can help identify problems early, therefore alleviating the need for a major overhaul as the year progresses. Your vantage point as a group member gives a great opportunity to regularly observe how things are going. Depending on the frequency of meetings and an understanding of what to look for, you can be instrumental in

ensuring group and individual success.

Elements of an organization which typically influence group proceedings contain communication, participation, decision making and role fulfillment. When observing these specific areas you will likely see many things happening simultaneously. This is to be expected, but it can also be rather confusing. Initially, you may want to isolate a single aspect of the group. As you become more adept at observation, you can slowly augment your areas of focus.

## **Observation**

One of the easiest characteristics of group process to observe is the pattern of communication:

- Who talks? For how long? How often?
- At whom do people look when they speak?
- Who talks after whom? Who interrupts whom?
- What style of communication is used (assertions, questions, tone of voice, gestures, etc.)?
- Who sits where? Do the same people always sit in the same place?

The kinds of observations we create provide us clues to other significant things which may be going on in the group (e.g., such as who leads whom or who influences whom).

## **Participation**

One indication of involvement is verbal participation. Look for differences in the amount of participation among members.

- Who are the high participants? Who are the low participants?
- Do you see any shift in participation (e.g., highs become quiet; lows suddenly become talkative)? What are possible reasons for this in the group's interaction?
- How are the silent people treated? How is their silence interpreted? Consent? Disagreement? Disinterest? Fear? Etc.?
- Who talks to whom? Do you see any cause for this in the group's interactions?
- Who keeps the ball rolling? Why? Do you see any cause for this in the group's interactions?

## **Decision Making**

Several kinds of decisions are made in groups without considering the effects that these decisions will have on other members. Some people try to impose their own decisions on the group, while others want all members to

participate or share in the decision making process.

- Does anyone create a decision and carry it out without checking with other group members (self-authorized)? For instance, one person decides on the topic to be discussed and immediately begins to talk in relation to it. What effect does this have on other group members?
- Does the group drift from topic to topic? Who topic-jumps? Do you see any cause for this in the group's interactions?
- Who supports other members' suggestions or decisions? Does this support result in the two members deciding the topic or activity for the group? How does this affect the other group members?
- Is there any proof of a majority pushing a decision through over other member's objections? Do they call for a vote (majority support)?
- Is there any effort to get all members participating in a decision (consensus)? What effect does this seem to have on the group?
- Does anyone create any contributions which do not receive any kind of response or recognition? What effect does this have on the member?
- Does the exec board create all of the decisions or do all of the talking or do the members?

## **Organizational Roles**

A diversity of crucial roles need to be filled to ensure group goal accomplishment and success. Roles are distributed among three types:

- Task: Primarily expressed through trying to accomplish group tasks. Examples: initiator, contributor, information seeker and giver, elaborator, energizer, recorder.
- Maintenance: Oriented toward improving relationships among members. Examples: encourager, harmonizer, compromiser.
- Self Oriented: Focuses on personal needs regardless of group concerns. Examples: aggressor, recognition seeker, dominator, blocker.

Process observation requires patience and the skill to focus on everyone in the group. Paying attention to these questions and roles can help you to better understand how the group is affecting its member and vice versa.

## **Types of groups**

### ***Primary groups***

According to Charles Horton Cooley (1864–1929), a primary group is a small social group whose members share personal and lasting relationships. People joined in primary relationships spend a great deal of time together, engage in a wide range of activities, and feel that they know one another well. In short, they show real concern for one another. In every society, the family is

the most significant primary group. Groups based on lasting friendships are also primary groups.

### ***Secondary groups***

Secondary groups, in contrast to primary groups, are large groups involving formal and institutional relationships. Secondary relationships involve weak emotional ties and little personal knowledge of one another. Most secondary groups are short term, beginning and ending without scrupulous significance. They may last for years or may disband after a short time. The formation of primary groups happens within secondary groups.

Primary groups can be present in secondary settings. For instance, attending a university exemplifies membership of a secondary group, while the friendships that are made there would be measured a primary group that you belong to. Likewise, some businesses care deeply in relation to the well being of one another, while some immediate families have hostile relations within it. Individuals approximately universally have a bond toward what sociologists call reference groups. A reference group is a social group that serves as a point of reference in making evaluations and decisions.

Some examples of types of groups contain the following:

- Peer group: A peer group is a group with members of almost the same age, social status, and interests. Usually, people are relatively equal in conditions of power when they interact with peers.
- Clique: A group of people that have several of the same interests & commonly found in a High School/College setting; most of the time they have a name & rules for themselves.
- Club: A club is a group, which usually requires one to apply to become a member. Such clubs may be dedicated to scrupulous activities: sporting clubs, for instance.
- Cabal: A cabal is a group of people united in some close design together, usually to promote their private views or interests in a church, state, or other community, often through intrigue.
- Household: All individuals who live in the same home. anglophone culture may contain several models of household, including the family, blended families, share housing, and group homes.
- Community: A community is a group of people with a commonality or sometimes a intricate net of overlapping commonalities, often—but not always—in proximity with one another with some degree of stability over time.
- Franchise: An organization which runs many instances of a business in several locations.
- Gang: A gang is usually an urban group that gathers in a scrupulous area. It is a group of people that often hang approximately each other. They can be like some clubs, but much less formal. They are usually recognized in several countries to cause social unrest and also have

negative influence on the members and may be a target for the law enforcers in case of any social vices

- Mob: A mob is usually a group of people that has taken the law into their own hands. Mobs are usually groups which gather temporarily for a scrupulous cause.
- Posse: A posse was originally found in English common law. It is usually obsolete, and survives only in America, where it is the law enforcement equivalent of summoning the militia for military purposes. Though, it can also refer to a street group.
- Squad: This is usually a small group, of approximately 3 to 15 people, who work as a team to accomplish their goals.
- Dyad: This is a social group with two members. Social interaction in a dyad is typically more intense than in superior groups because neither member shares the other's attention with anyone else.
- Triad: This is a social group with three members, which contains three relationships, each uniting two of the three people. A triad is more stable than a dyad because one member can act as a mediator should the relationship flanked by the other two become strained.
- Team: similar to a squad, though a team may contain several more members. A team works in a similar method to a squad.
- In-group: It is a social group toward which a member feels respect and loyalty. It is a group that an individual identifies in positive direction. If a person is part of the in-group then they are collectively part of an inner circle of friends. An inner circle may contain sub-groups within the inner circle including the apex (best friends), core (very close friends), outer rim, etc. This group gives a support structure and being exclusive offers protection from anyone in an Out-group
- Out-group: It is a social group toward which a person feels a sense of competition or opposition. It is a group that an individual identifies in negative direction.

Groups can also be categorized according to the number of people present within the group. This creates sense if the size of the group has consequences for the method group members relate with each other. In a small group, for instance, "each member receives some impression ... of each other member separate enough so that he or she ... can provide some reaction to each of the others as an individual person." This personal interaction is not possible in superior groups.

### **Group cohesiveness**

When discussing social groups, a group is said to be in a state of cohesion when its members possess bonds linking them to one another and to the group as a whole. Although cohesion is a multi-factored process, it can be broken down into four main components: social relations, task relations, perceived

unity, and emotions. Members of strongly cohesive groups are more inclined to participate readily and to stay with the group.

### ***Definition of cohesion***

There are different methods to describe group cohesion, depending on how researchers conceptualize this concept. Though, most researchers describe cohesion to be task commitment and interpersonal attraction to the group.

Cohesion can be more specifically defined as the tendency for a group to be in unity while working towards a goal or to satisfy the emotional needs of its members. This definition comprises significant characteristics of cohesiveness, including its multidimensionality, dynamic nature, instrumental basis, and emotional dimension. Its multidimensionality refers to how cohesion is based on several factors. Its dynamic nature refers to how it slowly changes over time in its strength and form from the time a group is formed to when a group is disbanded. Its instrumental basis refers to how people cohere for some purpose, whether it be for a task or for social reasons. Its emotional dimension refers to how cohesion is pleasing to its group members. This definition can be generalized to most groups characterized through the group definition discussed above. These groups contain sports teams, work groups, military units, fraternity groups, and social groups. Though, it is significant to note that other researchers claim that cohesion cannot be generalized across several groups.

In addition to task commitment and interpersonal attraction, group pride may be incorporated in the definition of cohesion. Group pride is when group members like the ideologies that the group supports and share the feeling that being a member of the group is significant.

### ***Causes of group cohesion***

The bonds that link group members to one another and to their group as a whole are not whispered to develop spontaneously. Over the years, social scientists have explained the phenomenon of group cohesiveness in different methods. Some have suggested that cohesiveness among group members develops from a heightened sense of belonging, teamwork, interpersonal and group-level attraction. Attraction, task commitment and group pride are also said to cause group cohesion. Each cause is expanded upon below.

#### ***Attraction***

Festinger and colleagues (1950) proposed the theory of group cohesiveness that suggests that cohesiveness can be measured as attractiveness to individuals within the group and attractiveness to the group as a whole. Lott and Lott argue that interpersonal attraction within the group is enough to account for group cohesion. In other words, group cohesion exists when its members have mutual positive feelings towards one another.

Other theorists consider that attraction to the group as a whole causes group cohesion. This concept of being attracted to the group itself is reminiscent of the social identity theory. According to Hogg (1992), group cohesiveness is based on social attraction, which refers to "attraction among members of a salient social group". Hogg uses self-categorization theory to explain how group cohesiveness develops from social attraction. The theory states that when looking at others' similarities and differences, individuals mentally categorize themselves and others as part of a group, in-group members, or as not part of a group, out-group members. From this type of categorizing, the stereotypes of their group becomes more prominent in the individual's mind. This leads the individual to think and behave according to group norms, therefore resulting in attraction to the group as a whole. This process is recognized as depersonalization of self-perception. The social attraction (as used in Hogg's theory) refers to the liking of depersonalized characteristics, the prototype of the group, which is separate from interpersonal attraction among individuals within the group. It is also significant to note that group cohesiveness is more associated with group attraction than with attraction to individual members.

### *Group Pride*

Several theorists consider that group cohesion results from a deep sense of "wellness," or belonging to a group as a whole. Through becoming enthusiastically involved in the efforts of the group and through recognizing the similarities that exist among group members, more cohesion is formed. Furthermore, group pride makes a sense of community that strengthens the bonds of unity that link group members to one another.

### *Task Commitment*

Other theorists stress that cohesion comes from group members' commitment to work together to complete their shared tasks and accomplish their communal tasks or goals. Members of task-oriented groups typically exhibit great interdependence and often possess feelings of responsibility for the group's outcomes. The bonds of unity that develop from members' concerted effort to achieve their common goals are measured indicative of group cohesion.

### ***Factors influencing group cohesion***

The forces that push group members together can be positive (group-based rewards) or negative (things lost upon leaving the group). The main factors that influence group cohesiveness are: members' similarity, group size, entry difficulty, group success and external competition and threats. Often, these factors work through enhancing the identification of individuals with the group they belong to as well as their beliefs of how the group can fulfill their

personal needs.

### *Similarity of group members*

Similarity of group members has different influences on group cohesiveness depending on how to describe this concept. Lott and Lott (1965) who refer to interpersonal attraction as group cohesiveness mannered an extensive review on the literature and found that individuals' similarities in background (e.g., race, ethnicity, occupation, age), attitudes, values and personality traits have usually positive association with group cohesiveness.

On the other hand, from the perspective of social attraction as the basis of group cohesiveness, similarity among group members is the cue for individuals to categorize themselves and others into either an in-group or out-group. In this perspective, the more prototypical similarity individuals feel flanked by themselves and other in-group members, the stronger the group cohesiveness will be.

In addition, similar background creates it more likely that members share similar views on several issues, including group objectives, communication methods and the type of desired leadership. In general, higher agreement among members on group rules and norms results in greater trust and less dysfunctional conflict. This, in turn, strengthens both emotional and task cohesiveness.

### *Entry difficulty*

Hard entry criteria or procedures to a group tend to present it in more exclusive light. The more elite the group is perceived to be, the more prestigious it is to be a member in that group. As shown in dissonance studies mannered through Aronson and Mills (1959) and confirmed through Gerard and Mathewson (1966), this effect can be due to dissonance reduction. Dissonance reduction can occur when a person has endured arduous initiation into a group; if some characteristics of the group are unpleasant, the person may distort their perception of the group because of the difficulty of entry. Therefore, the value of the group increases in the group member's mind.

### *Group Performance*

Group performance, like exclusive entry, increases the value of group membership to its members and influences members to identify more strongly with the team and to want to be actively associated with it.

### *External competition and threat*

When members perceive active competition with another group, they become more aware of members' similarity within their group as well as seeing their group as a means to overcome the external threat or competition

they are facing . Both these factors augment group cohesiveness; leaders throughout human history have been aware of this and focused the attention of their followers on conflicts with external enemies when internal cohesion was threatened. Similar effects can be brought in relation to by facing an 'objective' external threat or challenge (such as natural disaster) .

### ***Consequences of group cohesion***

Group cohesion has been connected to a range of positive and negative consequences. Its consequences on performance, member satisfaction, member emotional adjustment, and the pressures felt through the member will be examined in the sections below.

#### ***Cohesion and Performance***

Studies have shown that cohesion can cause performance and that performance can cause cohesion. Most meta-analyses (studies that have summarized the results of several studies) have shown that there is a relationship flanked by cohesion and performance. This is the case even when cohesion is defined in different methods. When cohesion is defined as attraction, it is better correlated with performance. When it is defined as task commitment, it is also correlated with performance, though to a lesser degree than cohesion as attraction. Not enough studies were performed with cohesion defined as group pride. When considering cohesion as attraction to the group, cohesion was also positively related to performance. In general, cohesion defined in all these methods was positively related with performance.

Though, some groups may have a stronger cohesion-performance relationship than others. Smaller groups have a better cohesion-performance relationship than superior groups. Carron (2002) found cohesion-performance relationships to be strongest in sports teams and ranked the strength of the relationship in this order (from strongest to weakest): sports teams, military squads, groups that form for a purpose, groups in experimental settings. There is some proof that cohesion may be more strongly related to performance for groups that have highly interdependent roles than for groups in which members are independent.

In regards to group productivity, having attraction and group pride may not be enough. It is necessary to have task commitment in order to be productive. Furthermore, groups with high performance goals were very productive.

#### ***Cohesion and Member Satisfaction***

Studies have shown that people in cohesive groups have reported more satisfaction than members of a noncohesive group. This is the case crossways several settings, including industrial, athletic, and educational settings. Members in cohesive groups also are more optimistic and suffer less from social problems than those in non-cohesive groups.

One study involved a team of masons and carpenters working on a housing development. For the first five months, their supervisor formed the groups they were to work in. These groups changed over the course of five months. This was to help the men get to know everyone working on this development project and naturally, likes and dislikes for the people approximately them appeared. The experimenter then formed cohesive groups through grouping people who liked each other. It was found that the masons and carpenters were more satisfied when they worked in cohesive groups. As quoted from one of the workers "the work is more motivating when you've got a buddy working with you. You certainly like it a lot better anyway."

### *Cohesion and Emotional Adjustment*

People in cohesive groups experience better emotional adjustment. In scrupulous, people experience less anxiety and tension. It was also found that people cope better with stress when they belong to a cohesive group.

One study showed that cohesion as task commitment can improve group decision making when the group is under stress than when it is not under stress. The study studied forty-six three-person teams, all of whom were faced with the task of selecting the best oil drilling sites based on information given to them. The study manipulated whether or not the teams had high cohesion or low cohesion and how urgent the task was to be done. The study found that teams with low cohesion and high urgency performed worse than teams with high cohesion and high urgency. This designates that cohesion can improve group decision-making in times of stress.

Attachment theory has also asserted that adolescents with behavioral problems do not have close interpersonal relationships or have superficial ones. Several studies have found that an individual without close peer relationships are at a higher risk for emotional adjustment problems currently and later in life.

While people may experience better emotional in cohesive groups, they may also face several demands on their emotions, such as those that result from scapegoating and hostility.

### *Cohesion and Conventionality Pressures*

People in cohesive groups have greater pressure to conform than people in non-cohesive groups. The theory of groupthink suggests that the pressures hinder the group from critically thinking in relation to the decisions it is making. Giordano has suggested that this is because people within a group regularly interact with one another and make several opportunities for influence. It is also because a person within a group perceive other members as similar to themselves and are therefore , more willing to provide into conventionality pressures. Another cause is because people value the group and are therefore , more willing to provide into conventionality pressures to maintain or enhance their relationships.

Illegal activities have been stemmed from conventionality pressures within a group. Haynie found that the degree to which a group of friends occupied in illegal activities was a predictor of an individual's participation in the illegal activity. This was even after the individual's prior behavior was controlled for and other controls were set in place. Furthermore, those with friends who all occupied in illegal activities were most likely to engage in illegal activities themselves. Another study found that adolescents with no friends did not engage in as several illegal activities as those with at least one friend. Other studies have found similar results.

### ***Public policy***

Social cohesion has become an significant theme in British social policy in the period since the disturbances in Britain's Northern mill towns (Oldham, Bradford and Burnley) in the summer of 2001. In investigating these, academic Ted Cante drew heavily on the concept of social cohesion, and the New Labour government (particularly then Home Secretary David Blunkett) in turn widely promoted the notion. As the Runnymede Trust noted in their "The Year of Cohesion" in 2003:

- "If there has been a key word added to the Runnymede lexicon in 2002, it is cohesion. A year from publication of the report of the Commission on the Future of Multi-Ethnic Britain, the Cante, Denham, Clarke, Ouseley and Ritchie reports moved cohesion to the forefront of the UK race debate."

According to the government-commissioned, *State of the English Cities* thematic reports, there are five different dimensions of social cohesion: material circumstances, passive relationships, active relationships, inclusion and equality.

- The report shows that material circumstances are fundamental to social cohesion, particularly employment, income, health, education and housing. Relations flanked by and within communities suffer when people lack work and endure hardship, debt, anxiety, low self-esteem, ill-health, poor skills and bad living circumstances. These basic necessities of life are the foundations of a strong social fabric and significant indicators of social progress.
- The second basic tenet of cohesion is social order, safety and freedom from fear, or "passive social relationships". Tolerance and respect for other people, beside with peace and security, are hallmarks of a stable and harmonious urban society.
- The third dimension refers to the positive interactions, exchanges and networks flanked by individuals and communities, or "active social relationships". Such contacts and connections are potential resources for places since they offer people and organisations mutual support, information, trust and credit of several kinds.

- The fourth dimension is in relation to the extent of social inclusion or integration of people into the mainstream institutions of civil society. It also comprises people's sense of belonging to a city and the strength of shared experiences, identities and values flanked by those from different backgrounds.
- Lastly, social equality refers to the level of fairness or disparity in access to opportunities or material circumstances, such as income, health or quality of life, or in future life chances.

Analysts at the credit rating agency Moody's have also introduced the possibility of adding social cohesion as a formal rating into their sovereign debt indices. In 2011 a former advisor to Rt Hon John Denham MP launched a new web resource including material focused on the future of the 'cohesion' debate.

### **Group Morale And Social Climate**

This implies that individuals through being members of a group, have self control and a sense of discipline. Individuals through being member of a group, recognize the attendance of a positive goal for the group to achieve. They experience a feeling of togetherness through being members of the group, awareness of a danger to the group (which they are able to sense as a member of the group) and also have the conviction that circumstances can be improved so that the goal can be reached. Participation in the activities of a group with high morale is stimulating as well as gratifying to the members of the group. It may therefore be stated in this context that significance of social control depends not only on the nature of the group norm but also on the state of the group morale. One can study the group as a whole and the several changes that occur in the behaviour of the members of the group and also how these changes are transmitted to all the individuals, so that the behaviour of the group is altered. The group behaviour can be understood only if both the personality of the individual and the character of the social situation are taken into consideration. Therefore , it can be said that group behaviour is a function of both individual and social situation. Psychological effects take an significant role in this regard.

### **Group vs. individual in problem solving**

Throughout our study and work life we will often be expected to work as a part of a group. Group work often leaves several feeling frustrated. I have at several times heard the complaint "It would have been quicker if I had just done it myself". So when should we use a group to address a scrupulous problem and what are the major advantages and disadvantages of using groups to solve a problem.. A large amount of problem solving takes place in group settings. Meetings and informal discussions are often used to air different

ideas and points of view to help solve problems for which the participants have either shared responsibility or a contribution to create. Though, most of the time we do not take full advantage of these situations. Used at the right time and in the right method, group problem solving can be the most effective method of solving some problems.

### ***When to use group problem solving***

Although there are very definite advantages to solving certain problems as a group, others can be solved more effectively through an individual. It's significant to know when and when not to work in a group.

*Use this checklist to decide when to use group problem solving:*

- Can the problem be defined in several different methods?
- Is information from several different sources required?
- Is it a very specialized problem, where the expert might be biased or not see the wider implications?
- Does the problem have implications for several people?
- Are there likely to be several possible solutions?
- Is it a intricate problem with several different characteristics?
- Will a solution need to be agreed through others before it can be implemented?

The more questions you answer 'yes', the more appropriate it is to use group problem solving. Though, the deciding question is always: *'Are appropriate and relevant people accessible to work together in solving this problem'.*

When people are working together it's inevitable that they will be influenced through each other. This can have a important effect on the efficiency of group problem solving.

### ***Advantages and disadvantages of using a group to solve a problem***

#### ***Competition***

Most people working in a group unconsciously perceive the situation as competitive. This generates behaviour which is destructive and drains the creative energy of the group. For instance, we often perceive disagreement with our ideas as a put-down. The natural reaction is to regain our self-esteem, often through trying to sabotage the ideas of those who disagreed with us. Instead of looking for methods to improve on their ideas we choose to destroy them.

Eager to express our own ideas, we may totally ignore what others are suggesting. Power-seekers may use ploys such as highlighting flaws in others' arguments, barbed questions and displays of expertise to show their supremacy. These types of behaviour make an atmosphere which is

incompatible with effective problem solving.

#### *Conventionality*

There is a strong tendency for individuals in a group to want to conform to the consensus. This can be for a diversity of reasons, including the need to feel liked, valued or respected, and tends to create people censor their ideas accordingly. The comparative status of the individuals present also has an significant influence. Senior members often want to maintain their image of being knowledgeable, while junior members want to avoid appearing the inexperienced 'upstart'. Because agreement on ideas can be gained quickly in a group setting, groups tend to select and approve solutions quickly, without exploring all the possibilities.

#### *Lack of objective direction*

Most traditional meetings and group discussions convened to solve problems are ineffectively directed. Sometimes there is no effective leader to provide direction to the discussion, with the result that it wanders aimlessly. Even when there is strong leadership, the group leader or chairman often exerts undue pressure on the direction and content of the discussion. In addition, the ideas aired throughout a meeting are not usually recorded, separately from the minutes and individual note-taking, with the result that several ideas are forgotten and cannot act as a constant incentive to the discussion.

#### *Time constraints*

Group problem solving is a relatively slow process compared with working alone. It requires individuals to come together at an agreed time, usually for in relation to one hour, and this can cause organizational problems as well as impatience amongst participants to 'get it over with' as quickly as possible.

### ***The advantages of group problem solving***

#### *Greater output*

Simply because of the number of people involved, each with differing experience, knowledge, points of view and values, a superior number and diversity of ideas for solving a problem can be produced.

#### *Cross fertilization*

The exchange of ideas can act as a incentive to the imagination, encouraging individuals to explore ideas they would not otherwise consider.

### *Reduced bias*

The shared responsibility of a group in arriving at decisions can encourage individuals to explore seemingly unrealistic ideas and to challenge accepted methods of doing things. Individual biases and prejudices can be challenged through the group, forcing the individual to recognize them. Group pressure can also encourage individuals to accept that change is needed.

### *Increased risk taking*

Shared responsibility creates individuals more willing to take risks. The discussion of different points of view also helps the group to be more realistic in assessing the risks associated with scrupulous courses of action.

### *Higher commitment*

When goals are agreed it provides a common purpose to the group, within which individuals can gain a feeling of self-determination and recognition through their contribution. Individuals who have contributed to finding a solution feel a greater commitment to its successful implementation.

### *Improved communication*

When people who are affected through a problem or who will be involved in implementation are involved in finding a solution, they will know how and why that scrupulous solution was chosen. Also, people with knowledge relevant to the problem can communicate that knowledge directly if they participate in solving the problem.

### *Better solutions*

Groups of individuals can bring a broad range of ideas, knowledge and skills to bear on a problem. This makes a stimulating interaction of diverse ideas which results in a wider range and better quality of solutions.

## **Positive And Negative Impacts Of Group Influence**

Small group work amongst students at all levels is approximately universally praised for its positive effects. Slavin's conclusion is typical, to the effect that "The use of cooperative learning strategies results in improvements both in the achievement of students and in the quality of their interpersonal relationships". A recent volume written for Australian law teachers lists twelve separate benefits which may flow from putting students together to work in groups. The term "group work" encompasses a wide range of experiences extending from brief discussions in class through ad hoc "buzz groups" to intricate problem-solving tasks or projects pursued through well-

organized teams over lengthy periods of time. Extensive research has evaluated positively organized student interaction of these and a wide diversity of other types. Although the group formats and teaching methods investigated in this body of research differ greatly, most studies share a common characteristic: student perceptions of, and reactions to, group learning processes are rarely explicitly questioned. In addition, most of these studies are of school children, not students in higher education settings.

Sharan and Shachar's work is a good instance of the type of research design often used to investigate group work. They set out to examine the effect of cooperative learning on academic achievement and oral interaction, paying scrupulous attention to the behaviour of majority and minority ethnic groups. To measure this in an experimental format they administered tests of academic achievement and videotaped school student group discussions for subsequent analysis. Based upon this proof they concluded that "pupil cooperation throughout small group study predicts a important degree of their performance on written tests of academic achievement". Ramsden and others have urged teachers and researchers also to question students directly for valuable insight into their perceptions of educational environments and the influence those perceptions have on their learning. Collier has described for an action research approach to investigating group learning processes which would involve collaboration amongst investigators, practitioners and students. Thorley and Gregory remark that "We now need, ... to become more inquisitive in relation to the student experience on the courses we offer, including the group-work element." Most of the research to date, though, has measured achievement and change in interpersonal relations in experimental settings rather than focusing on reports through students of their experiences of group work in natural teaching environments.

Some studies of group work have featured feedback gained through interviews with students. One evaluation of a group approach to teaching law used the convergent interviewing technique to gauge student views. There are also some reports of systematic surveys of student experience of group work using a questionnaire. Godden and LeBrun surveyed law students who had participated in "teacher-less" group work through means of a written questionnaire and Scott took the same approach in order to obtain student reaction to doing group projects in college level technical writing classes. Although the results of these two surveys were interpreted as favoring the use of group work they also indicated that there are problems with group work from the student point of view. Grant exposed that reactions to group work amongst university students tended to be divided flanked by extremes of positivity and negativity. These studies highlight the need for better understanding of students' experience of group work particularly at the tertiary level. The research reported on here was intended to assist in that task.

### ***Research design and implementation***

Almost 120 law students were recognized who had participated in group work as part of the course design in at least one of three subjects offered at the Murdoch University Law School. Some students in this category had taken two and some all three of these courses. In two of the courses student groups were required to prepare team projects; in one the project was assessed through the instructor and a single mark given, in the other the project was critiqued through another group but no mark was given. In the third subject groups were required to prepare for intercrop exercises in which only two members of each team would participate. Performance of these students was individually assessed through other students in the class. The researchers prepared a written questionnaire which was distributed to all of these students in classes for completion on their own time. A box for deposit of the completed questionnaires was provided in the law school. Each copy of the questionnaire had a "cover sheet" attached on which students were requested to place their name and deposit in a separate box to indicate they had responded. This procedure allowed for personal follow-up with non-responders.

The survey instrument was intended to allow students to express their attitudes and beliefs in relation to doing group work and their views as to how the experience of group work had affected them as learners. Most questions took the form of Likert-type items providing for a range of answers from poles of "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", or similar scales. One section asked the students to recall their attitudes and levels of skills before doing group work in the law subjects and then to report any change in them. Another section investigated the extent to which students agreed with a range of goals teachers might have for setting group work. Students were also asked what they found most helpful as support in doing group work, and what impact they thought group work had on their learning and their grades. A number of open-ended questions were also incorporated, for instance inviting students to express their "general feelings" in relation to group work. Responses were analyzed using SPSS and correlations investigated. Since the sample obtained was not probability-based no tests of significance will be reported.

### ***Results***

Following up with non-responders resulted in 85 out of the possible 120 students completing the questionnaire. Most responders also answered the open-ended questions. Many positive impacts of group work which are in line with previous studies were reported through majorities of students. In response to the statement "Having completed group projects, I feel I am more cooperative in my approach" 78% of responders agreed or strongly agreed and 92% disagreed or strongly disagreed with its contrary, that they became more competitive. In reaction to the statement that they were more "confident with people" after doing group work 72% of responders agreed or strongly agreed.

Students were also presented with the statement that group projects enabled them “to use skills which individual assessments do not” and 87% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed.

Two significant characteristics of the experience of working in groups are the possibility of conflict flanked by members and perhaps related to this, the possibility of unequal contribution to group work. A strong majority of respondents to this survey (83%) disagreed when asked whether their experience was that “all group members contribute equally to the project”. Nevertheless, an approximately equally strong majority (80%) denied that there had been important conflict flanked by students in their groups. This suggests perhaps suppressed feelings of frustration or anger when dealing with “free riders” who are not manifested in overt conflict but may be connected to other attitude changes noted below. Several respondents also reported an impact of group work on their attitudes towards their peers which the researchers consider to be positive. Students were asked whether, after doing group work, there was a change in their “level of appreciation of the value of other students in contributing towards [their] own learning” and 66% of respondents replied that it had increased. In response to a statement concerning change in their “skill to learn from other students” 53% of those responding said it had increased. For a number of questions concerning changes in attitude toward peers, in level of skills, and in approach to learning the mode response was “not changed”.

The questionnaire gave students the opportunity to draw a distinction flanked by the effect of group work on their grades and on their learning and several students chose to do so. When asked whether group work caused them to receive higher marks than they received on individual work 75% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed. On the other hand, when asked whether doing group work helped them to learn more than they would on an individual project 60% agreed or strongly agreed. More troubling were the numbers reporting a decrease in what the researchers whispered to be indicators of a positive learning environment. While 39% of respondents reported an augment in their level of trust towards other students after doing group work, 13% said the opposite and 48% replied “no change”. This difference was also reflected in responses to an item concerning their “level of respect for other students” where the results were: increased - 32%; decreased - 14%; and no change - 54%. Change in approach to learning was probed through presenting the statement “After doing group work, my desire to learn more in relation to the course content has ... “ in answer to which respondents said: increased - 25%; decreased - 13%; no change - 62%. Asked whether they felt “more responsible for [their] own learning” having completed group projects there was a important split of responses with 59% saying they agreed or strongly agreed and the rest disagreeing or strongly disagreeing.

In order to get a clearer picture of changes in attitude which might be associated with doing group work an exploration of correlations flanked by past states and subsequent changes was undertaken. Some motivating

associations seem to be suggested through the data. Students were asked to report whether their feelings or beliefs were at a high, medium or low level before doing group work and then to indicate if there had been an augment, decrease or no change.

### ***Discussion***

The results of this survey research seem to confirm the findings of previous studies that group work can have a positive impact on students in a diversity of methods, but it also highlights the subsistence of negative impacts of group learning which should not be ignored.

Previous studies of school children in group learning situations have usually focused on: achievement affects the differential reward structures of group processes, the impact of group processes on acceptance of racial and other differences in peers or changes in social relations amongst students. Only a few of such studies have measured the nexus flanked by student attitudes and learning. More recent studies of group work amongst college students have tended to emphasize the impact of group work on attitudes towards study and learning. This survey continues the latter work through investigating student dispositions which have been associated with approaches to learning as described through Ramsden. The item in this survey which has been labeled as indicative of a deep learning approach reflects one of the hallmarks of that approach listed through Ramsden. It may be suggested that greater exposure to the ideas of others in group work opens vistas of inquiry into the subject being studied as well as challenging students to engage in synthesis of conflicting ideas resulting in greater understanding. This effect may occur through a process of cognitive conflict amongst group members which is resolved through interaction. In order for the maximum advantage to be gained though, it may be necessary to form groups which do not contain extremes of skill or prior knowledge as suggested through Nastasi and Clements. Failure to do this may contribute to a decrease in deep learning approach experienced through some students as noted above.

The data on changes in trust and deep learning approach set out in Tables 1 and 2 suggest the subsistence of a kind of “moderating” impact of group work on pre-existing attitudes in which students at extreme poles are brought to a more central position. An early study of college student attitudes after experience of learning in “student-centered groups” may provide some insight into such a phenomenon. Anderson and Kell found some proof to support the argument that student interaction tended “to facilitate changes in the direction of developing a common core of positive attitudes”. The positive attitudes they found incorporated self-confidence, lack of anxiety in relation to the expressing ideas, evaluating ideas for oneself and willingness to change one’s ideas and desiring to participate without anxiety in relation to doing so. The present survey results provide some indication that strong positive attitudes may also be eroded as a result of group learning.

Rau and Heyl reported that 67 of 101 students completing a course evaluation questionnaire listed some problems with group work but nevertheless concluded that “When one-third of the students volunteer that this classroom format [collaborative learning groups], which demands much of them, presents ‘no problems,’ they are giving strong approval indeed.” Scott found that several students were uncertain in relation to the whether group projects were superior to what they could produce individually and that they appreciated group work more for helping them learn to work together than for helping them learn to write. The present survey found a similar split amongst students concerning some impacts of group learning such as the response through 40% of the sample who indicated group work did not help them learn more. Rather than focus on the positive majority view expressed through students perhaps it is time to inquire further into the causes of complaint in relation to the group work and its failure to stimulate learning for some.

Godden and LeBrun’s study of law students who experienced group work as an integral part of their curriculum is almost certainly the most comparable to the present research. Their survey though did not focus on several of the same variables as the present one such as indicators of approaches to learning or report any tests of correlation amongst the items they incorporated. One of the questions Godden and LeBrun asked in relation to the “learning process” in group work with reference to the range of factors (not limited to teaching method or style, but otherwise left unspecified) which students measured facilitated their learning. They found that on a five point scale from “very effective” to “not effective” the response mode was 3, or neutral, while more students indicated ineffectiveness than effectiveness. In answer to a question whether group work was useful “in providing a support network” 42% of respondents replied “no” or were “undecided”. These results, although not related to comparably worded items, appear to parallel the results of the present survey in illustrating that group work is not universally appreciated through students.

## **Cooperation and Competition**

In some situations, cooperation is dominant, whereas in others, competition is. Factors such as personalities of the individuals, volume of communication, size of the group, and reciprocity of actions determine whether individuals compete or cooperate in a social situation. These factors have been the focus of research mannered in laboratory game simulations of everyday situations. In the game theory approach, there are two kinds of games of interest to social psychologists: zero-sum and non-zero-sum. In zero-sum games, the total gains and losses equal zero. For instance, in chess or tennis there is a winner and a loser. In non-zero-sum games, the sum of the payoffs is not zero. There is value in cooperation in non-zero-sum games, since, if both players cooperate, both can gain and no one has to lose. Two

non-zero-sum games are described below. The *trucking game* was urbanized through Deutsch and Krauss (1960) to explore the bargaining behavior of individuals in a social situation. Each player owns a trucking company and tries to create a shipment as quickly as possible. Each has a long route to the destination as well as a short route that converges into a one-lane road. In order to use the short-cut (and create "money") the players have to cooperate and take turns using the road. Though, each person also has control of a gate to prevent the other trucking company from using the road. The best strategy is to cooperate, and yet the researchers found that when the players had a weapon (the gate), the majority of the time was spent competing and threatening the other. In the *prisoner's dilemma*, two prisoners are isolated and each is accused of a crime. If neither prisoner confesses, each receives a light sentence of 1 year of imprisonment; if both confess, each receives a heavy sentence of 10 years. If one confesses but the other does not, the one who confesses is given a very light sentence of 3 months and the other receives a very heavy sentence of 20 years. There is an advantage for both prisoners in cooperating and remaining silent, thereby guaranteeing both a relatively light sentence; but, over a series of trials, personal gain favors competition: through confessing and hoping the other person does not, one of the two might obtain the lightest possible sentence. Typically, subjects also show competition in this game. These games illustrate the factors that determine whether an individual competes or cooperates. Some research suggests that Americans are especially competitive, and that this characteristic is learned throughout childhood. There are personality differences, with some people always competing, some always cooperating, and some following the other person's lead (they begin through cooperating, but will compete if the other person does). Communication is also an significant factor. Wichman (1970) found that when there was no communication flanked by individuals in the prisoner's dilemma, in relation to the 40 percent of the responses were cooperative, but if verbal communication were allowed, the cooperation level increased to approximately 70 percent. The size of the group also creates a difference. When the prisoner's dilemma was customized so groups could play, researchers found that as the size of group increased, cooperation decreased. Reciprocity also plays a role, and several people will go beside with whatever strategy another person begins. Cooperation and competition are significant forces in today's world and social psychologists are attempting to understand how groups, and even nations, can learn to augment cooperation.

## **Leaders and Leadership**

Leadership has been described as "a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task", although there are alternative definitions of leadership. For instance, some understand a leader simply as somebody whom people follow,

or as somebody who guides or directs others, while others describe leadership as "organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal". Studies of leadership have produced theories involving traits, situational interaction, function, behavior, power, vision and values, charisma, and intelligence (among others).

## ***Theories***

### *Early western history*

The search for the characteristics or traits of leaders has been ongoing for centuries. Philosophical writings from Plato's *Republic* to Plutarch's *Lives* have explored the question "What qualities distinguish an individual as a leader?" Underlying this search was the early recognition of the importance of leadership and the assumption that leadership is rooted in the characteristics that certain individuals possess. This thought that leadership is based on individual attributes is recognized as the "trait theory of leadership".

The trait theory was explored at length in a number of works in the 19th century. Most notable are the writings of Thomas Carlyle and Francis Galton, whose works have prompted decades of research. In *Heroes and Hero Worship* (1841), Carlyle recognized the talents, skills, and physical characteristics of men who rose to power. In Galton's *Hereditary Genius* (1869), he examined leadership qualities in the families of powerful men. After showing that the numbers of eminent relatives dropped off when moving from first degree to second degree relatives, Galton concluded that leadership was inherited. In other words, leaders were born, not urbanized. Both of these notable works lent great initial support for the notion that leadership is rooted in characteristics of the leader.

### *Rise of alternative theories*

In the late 1940s and early 1950s, though, a series of qualitative reviews of these studies prompted researchers to take a drastically different view of the driving forces behind leadership. In reviewing the extant literature, Stogdill and Mann found that while some traits were common crossways a number of studies, the overall proof suggested that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. Subsequently, leadership was no longer characterized as an enduring individual trait, as situational approaches posited that individuals can be effective in certain situations, but not others. This approach dominated much of the leadership theory and research for the after that few decades.

### *Reemergence of trait theory*

New methods and measurements were urbanized after these influential reviews that would ultimately reestablish the trait theory as a viable approach

to the study of leadership. For instance, improvements in researchers' use of the round robin research design methodology allowed researchers to see that individuals can and do emerge as leaders crossways a diversity of situations and tasks. Additionally, throughout the 1980s statistical advances allowed researchers to conduct meta-analyses, in which they could quantitatively analyze and summarize the findings from a wide array of studies. This advent allowed trait theorists to make a comprehensive picture of previous leadership research rather than rely on the qualitative reviews of the past. Equipped with new methods, leadership researchers revealed the following:

- Individuals can and do emerge as leaders crossways a diversity of situations and tasks.
- Important relationships exist flanked by leadership and such individual traits as:
  - intelligence
  - adjustment
  - extraversion
  - conscientiousness
  - openness to experience
  - general self-efficacy

While the trait theory of leadership has certainly regained popularity, its reemergence has not been accompanied through a corresponding augment in sophisticated conceptual frameworks.

Specifically, Zaccaro noted that trait theories still:

1. focus on a small set of individual attributes such as Big Five personality traits, to the neglect of cognitive abilities, motives, values, social skills, expertise, and problem-solving skills;
2. fail to consider patterns or integrations of multiple attributes;
3. do not distinguish flanked by those leader attributes that are usually not malleable over time and those that are shaped through, and bound to, situational influences;
4. do not consider how stable leader attributes account for the behavioral diversity necessary for effective leadership.

#### *Attribute pattern approach*

Considering the criticisms of the trait theory outlined above, many researchers have begun to adopt a different perspective of leader individual differences—the leader attribute pattern approach. In contrast to the traditional approach, the leader attribute pattern approach is based on theorists' arguments that the influence of individual characteristics on outcomes is best understood through considering the person as an integrated totality rather than a summation of individual variables. In other words, the leader attribute pattern approach argues that integrated constellations or combinations of individual differences may explain substantial variance in both leader emergence and

leader effectiveness beyond that explained through single attributes, or through additive combinations of multiple attributes.

### *Behavioral and style theories*

In response to the early criticisms of the trait approach, theorists began to research leadership as a set of behaviors, evaluating the behavior of successful leaders, determining a behavior taxonomy, and identifying broad leadership styles. David McClelland, for instance, posited that leadership takes a strong personality with a well-urbanized positive ego. To lead, self-confidence and high self-esteem are useful, perhaps even essential.

Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lipitt, and Ralph White urbanized in 1939 the seminal work on the influence of leadership styles and performance. The researchers evaluated the performance of groups of eleven-year-old boys under different types of work climate. In each, the leader exercised his influence concerning the type of group decision making, praise and criticism (feedback), and the management of the group tasks (project management) according to three styles: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.

The managerial grid model is also based on a behavioral theory. The model was urbanized through Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964 and suggests five different leadership styles, based on the leaders' concern for people and their concern for goal achievement.

### *Positive reinforcement*

B.F. Skinner is the father of behavior modification and urbanized the concept of positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement occurs when a positive incentive is presented in response to a behavior, increasing the likelihood of that behavior in the future. The following is an instance of how positive reinforcement can be used in a business setting. Assume praise is a positive reinforce for a scrupulous employee. This employee does not show up to work on time every day. The manager of this employee decides to praise the employee for showing up on time every day the employee actually shows up to work on time. As a result, the employee comes to work on time more often because the employee likes to be praised. In this instance, praise (the incentive) is a positive reinforce for this employee because the employee arrives at work on time (the behavior) more regularly after being praised for showing up to work on time.

The use of positive reinforcement is a successful and rising technique used through leaders to motivate and attain desired behaviors from subordinates. Organizations such as Frito-Lay, 3M, Goodrich, Michigan Bell, and Emery Air Freight have all used reinforcement to augment productivity. Empirical research covering the last 20 years suggests that reinforcement theory has a 17 percent augment in performance. Additionally, several reinforcement techniques such as the use of praise are inexpensive, providing higher performance for lower costs.

### *Situational and contingency theories*

Situational theory also appeared as a reaction to the trait theory of leadership. Social scientists argued that history was more than the result of intervention of great men as Carlyle suggested. Herbert Spencer (1884) (and Karl Marx) said that the times produce the person and not the other method approximately. This theory assumes that different situations call for different characteristics; according to this group of theories, no single optimal psychographic profile of a leader exists. According to the theory, "what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions."

Some theorists started to synthesize the trait and situational approaches. Building upon the research of Lewin et al., academics began to normalize the descriptive models of leadership climates, defining three leadership styles and identifying which situations each style works better in. The authoritarian leadership style, for instance, is approved in periods of crisis but fails to win the "hearts and minds" of followers in day-to-day management; the democratic leadership style is more adequate in situations that require consensus building; finally, the laissez-faire leadership style is appreciated for the degree of freedom it gives, but as the leaders do not "take charge", they can be perceived as a failure in protracted or thorny organizational problems. Therefore, theorists defined the style of leadership as contingent to the situation, which is sometimes classified as contingency theory. Four contingency leadership theories appear more prominently in recent years: Fiedler contingency model, Vroom-Yetton decision model, the path-goal theory, and the Hersey-Blanchard situational theory.

The Fiedler contingency model bases the leader's effectiveness on what Fred Fiedler described *situational contingency*. This results from the interaction of leadership style and situational favorability (later described *situational control*). The theory defined two types of leader: those who tend to accomplish the task through developing good relationships with the group (relationship-oriented), and those who have as their prime concern carrying out the task itself (task-oriented). According to Fiedler, there is no ideal leader. Both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders can be effective if their leadership orientation fits the situation. When there is a good leader-member relation, a highly structured task, and high leader position power, the situation is measured a "favorable situation". Fiedler found that task-oriented leaders are more effective in very favorable or unfavorable situations, whereas relationship-oriented leaders perform best in situations with intermediate favorability.

Victor Vroom, in collaboration with Phillip Yetton (1973) and later with Arthur Jago (1988), urbanized a taxonomy for describing leadership situations, which was used in a normative decision model where leadership styles were linked to situational variables, defining which approach was more appropriate to which situation. This approach was novel because it supported the thought

that the same manager could rely on different group decision making approaches depending on the attributes of each situation. This model was later referred to as situational contingency theory.

The path-goal theory of leadership was urbanized through Robert House (1971) and was based on the expectancy theory of Victor Vroom. According to House, the essence of the theory is "the meta proposition that leaders, to be effective, engage in behaviors that complement subordinates' environments and abilities in a manner that compensates for deficiencies and is instrumental to subordinate satisfaction and individual and work unit performance". The theory identifies four leader behaviors, *achievement-oriented*, *directive*, *participative*, and *supportive*, that are contingent to the environment factors and follower characteristics. In contrast to the Fiedler contingency model, the path-goal model states that the four leadership behaviors are fluid, and that leaders can adopt any of the four depending on what the situation demands. The path-goal model can be classified both as a contingency theory, as it depends on the circumstances, and as a transactional leadership theory, as the theory emphasizes the reciprocity behavior flanked by the leader and the followers.

The situational leadership model proposed through Hersey and Blanchard suggests four leadership-styles and four levels of follower-development. For effectiveness, the model posits that the leadership-style necessity match the appropriate level of follower-development. In this model, leadership behavior becomes a function not only of the characteristics of the leader, but of the characteristics of followers as well.

### *Functional theory*

Functional leadership theory is a particularly useful theory for addressing specific leader behaviors expected to contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness. This theory argues that the leader's main job is to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; therefore, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion. While functional leadership theory has most often been applied to team leadership, it has also been effectively applied to broader organizational leadership as well. In summarizing literature on functional leadership, Klein, Zeigert, Knight, and Xiao observed five broad functions a leader performs when promoting organization's effectiveness. These functions contain environmental monitoring, organizing subordinate activities, teaching and coaching subordinates, motivating others, and intervening actively in the group's work.

A diversity of leadership behaviors are expected to facilitate these functions. In initial work identifying leader behavior, Fleishman observed that subordinates perceived their supervisors' behavior in conditions of two broad categories referred to as consideration and initiating structure. Consideration comprises behavior involved in fostering effective relationships. Examples of

such behavior would contain showing concern for a subordinate or acting in a supportive manner towards others. Initiating structure involves the actions of the leader focused specifically on task accomplishment. This could contain role clarification, setting performance standards, and holding subordinates accountable to those standards.

### *Integrated psychological theory*

The Integrated Psychological theory of leadership is an effort to integrate the strengths of the older theories (i.e. traits, behavioral/styles, situational and functional) while addressing their limitations, largely through introducing a new element – the need for leaders to develop their leadership attendance, attitude toward others and behavioral flexibility through practicing psychological mastery. It also offers a foundation for leaders wanting to apply the philosophies of servant leadership and “authentic leadership”.

Integrated Psychological theory began to attract attention after the publication of James Scouller’s Three Levels of Leadership model. Scouller argued that the older theories offer only limited assistance in developing a person’s skill to lead effectively. He pointed out, for instance, that:

- Traits theories, which tend to reinforce the thought that leaders are born not made, might help us select leaders, but they are less useful for developing leaders.
- An ideal style (e.g. Blake & Mouton’s team style) would not suit all circumstances.
- Most of the situational/contingency and functional theories assume that leaders can change their behavior to meet differing circumstances or widen their behavioral range at will, when in practice several find it hard to do so because of unconscious beliefs, fears or ingrained habits. Therefore, he argued, leaders need to work on their inner psychology.
- None of the old theories successfully address the challenge of developing “leadership attendance”; that certain “something” in leaders that commands attention, inspires people, wins their trust and creates followers want to work with them.

Scouller so proposed the Three Levels of Leadership model, which was later categorized as an “Integrated Psychological” theory on the Businessballs education website. In essence, his model aims to summarize what leaders have to do, not only to bring leadership to their group or organization, but also to develop themselves technically and psychologically as leaders.

The three levels in his model are Public, Private and Personal leadership:

- The first two – public and private leadership – are “outer” or behavioral levels. These are the behaviors that address what Scouller described “the four dimensions of leadership”. These dimensions are: (1) a shared, motivating group purpose; (2) action, progress and results; (3) communal unity or team spirit; (4) individual selection and motivation. Public leadership focuses on the 34 behaviors involved in

influencing two or more people simultaneously. Private leadership covers the 14 behaviors needed to influence individuals one to one.

- The third – personal leadership – is an “inner” level and concerns a person’s growth toward greater leadership attendance, knowhow and ability. Working on one’s personal leadership has three characteristics: (1) Technical knowhow and ability (2) Developing the right attitude toward other people – which is the basis of servant leadership (3) Psychological self-mastery – the foundation for authentic leadership.

Scouller argued that self-mastery is the key to rising one’s leadership attendance, building trusting relationships with followers and dissolving one’s limiting beliefs and habits, thereby enabling behavioral flexibility as circumstances change, while staying linked to one’s core values (that is, while remaining authentic). To support leaders’ development, he introduced a new model of the human psyche and outlined the principles and techniques of self-mastery.

### *Transactional and transformational theories*

Eric Berne first analyzed the relations flanked by a group and its leadership in conditions of transactional analysis. The transactional leader is given power to perform certain tasks and reward or punish for the team's performance. It provides the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agrees to follow his lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power is given to the leader to evaluate, correct, and train subordinates when productivity is not up to the desired level, and reward effectiveness when expected outcome is reached. Idiosyncrasy Credits, first posited through Edward Hollander (1971) is one instance of a concept closely related to transactional leadership.

### *Leader–member exchange theory*

Another theory that addresses a specific aspect of the leadership process is the leader–member exchange (LMX) theory, which evolved from an earlier theory described the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) model. Both of these models focus on the interaction flanked by leaders and individual followers. Similar to the transactional approach, this interaction is viewed as a fair exchange whereby the leader gives certain benefits such as task guidance, advice, support, and/or important rewards and the followers reciprocate through giving the leader respect, cooperation, commitment to the task and good performance. Though, LMX recognizes that leaders and individual followers will vary in the type of exchange that develops flanked by them. LMX theorizes that the type of exchanges flanked by the leader and specific followers can lead to the creation of *in-groups* and *out-groups*. In-group members are said to have *high-quality exchanges* with the leader, while out-group members have *low-quality exchanges* with the leader.

### *In-group members*

In-group members are perceived through the leader as being more experienced, competent, and willing to assume responsibility than other followers. The leader begins to rely on these individuals to help with especially challenging tasks. If the follower responds well, the leader rewards him/her with extra coaching, favorable job assignments, and developmental experiences. If the follower shows high commitment and effort followed through additional rewards, both parties develop mutual trust, influence, and support of one another. Research shows the in-group members usually receive higher performance evaluations from the leader, higher satisfaction, and faster promotions than out-group members. In-group members are also likely to build stronger bonds with their leaders through sharing the same social backgrounds and interests.

### *Out-group members*

Out-group members often receive less time and more distant exchanges than their in-group counterparts. With out-group members, leaders expect no more than adequate job performance, good attendance, reasonable respect, and adherence to the job description in exchange for a fair wage and standard benefits. The leader spends less time with out-group members, they have fewer developmental experiences, and the leader tends to emphasize his/her formal authority to obtain compliance to leader requests. Research shows that out-group members are less satisfied with their job and organization, receive lower performance evaluations from the leader, see their leader as less fair, and are more likely to file grievances or leave the organization.

### *Emotions*

Leadership can be perceived as a particularly emotion-laden process, with emotions entwined with the social influence process. In an organization, the leader's mood has some effects on his/her group. These effects can be described in three levels:

- The mood of individual group members. Group members with leaders in a positive mood experience more positive mood than do group members with leaders in a negative mood. The leaders transmit their moods to other group members through the mechanism of emotional contagion. Mood contagion may be one of the psychological mechanisms through which charismatic leaders influence followers.
- The affective tone of the group. Group affective tone represents the constant or homogeneous affective reactions within a group. Group affective tone is an aggregate of the moods of the individual members of the group and refers to mood at the group level of analysis. Groups with leaders in a positive mood have a more positive affective tone than do groups with leaders in a negative mood.

- Group processes like coordination, effort expenditure, and task strategy. Public expressions of mood impact how group members think and act. When people experience and express mood, they send signals to others. Leaders signal their goals, intentions, and attitudes through their expressions of moods. For instance, expressions of positive moods through leaders signal that leaders deem progress toward goals to be good. The group members respond to those signals cognitively and behaviorally in methods that are reflected in the group processes.

In research in relation to client service, it was found that expressions of positive mood through the leader improve the performance of the group, although in other sectors there were other findings.

Beyond the leader's mood, her/his behavior is a source for employee positive and negative emotions at work. The leader makes situations and events that lead to emotional response. Certain leader behaviors displayed throughout interactions with their employees are the sources of these affective events. Leaders shape workplace affective events. Examples – feedback giving, allocating tasks, resource distribution. Since employee behavior and productivity are directly affected through their emotional states, it is imperative to consider employee emotional responses to organizational leaders. Emotional intelligence, the skill to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership within organizations.

### *Neo-emergent theory*

The neo-emergent leadership theory espouses that leadership is created through the emergence of information through the leader or other stakeholders, not through the true actions of the leader himself. In other words, the reproduction of information or stories form the basis of the perception of leadership through the majority. It is well recognized that the great naval hero Lord Nelson often wrote his own versions of battles he was involved in, so that when he arrived home in England he would receive a true hero's welcome. In modern society, the press, blogs and other sources report their own views of a leader, which may be based on reality, but may also be based on a political command, a payment, or an inherent interest of the author, media, or leader. So, it can be contended that the perception of all leaders is created and in fact does not reflect their true leadership qualities at all.

### **Types of Leaders**

- The Transformational Leader: Leaders who show strength in all five leadership behaviors are those who are able to transform the commitment levels of those approximately them. They have deep

conviction in relation to goals; determination to execute plans and are prepared to go against conventional wisdom.

- The Enforcer: These are leaders who act in methods characterized through careful optimism and a drive to create sure specific objectives are achieved. They display strong belief in what they are doing and commitment to stay the course, but tend to limit options and avoid taking action where risk is associated.
- The Deal Maker: These leaders attract followers largely because of their energy and excitement for anything new. They thrive on change and regularly break the mold. In the business world, they often rise to prominence on the back of their reputation for the deals they pull off, but can be bored easily and have little regard for sustaining the performance of their efforts after initial success is achieved.
- The Administrator: These leaders are strategic executors who are clear in what needs to be achieved and ruthlessly follow through. They are autocratic in approach, letting nothing stand in the method of achieving the overall objective, and are likely to prefer detailed and rigorous project plans, constant monitoring and updating, and tight control over resources and people.
- The Visionary: These leaders inspire people to dream of greatness but fail to follow through. They have all the qualities of the transformational leader, including their skill to elevate ambition, but are weak at generating critical mass.
- The Serial Entrepreneur: These leaders are imaginative, but calculating, gamblers. They display vast energy and commitment and sweep people beside with them because they create seemingly impossible challenges achievable. They care deeply in relation to the their legacy but thrash about to articulate the wider context of their decisions in a method that's meaningful to their followers.
- The Spin Doctor: These leaders seem to be everything a leader should be, but their behavior is inconsistent and self-serving - they have underdeveloped conviction. What distinguishes these leaders most is their skill to convincingly argue the case, any case, and justify the change to followers.

## **Functions of Leaders**

Leadership functions of a manager are related with his managerial functions. The leader as a manager has to set the group goal, motivate and inspire subordinates, create plans, and supervise performance. Over and above these managerial functions he has to perform some other functions as a Leader. They are:

- To act as a representative of the work-group: Leader is the link flanked by the top management and the work group. He has to communicate

the problems and difficulties of the work group to the management and the expectation of the management to the work group. He act as a link flanked by the top management and the work group.

- To develop team spirit: One of the core function of the Leader manager is that to make a team spirit in flanked by the members of the group. They should act as a team rather than performing as individuals. It is his responsibility to make a pleasant atmosphere keeping in view the subordinates needs, potential abilities and competence.
- To act as a counselor of the people at work: When the subordinates face problems at work, which may be technical or emotional, the leader has to guide and advise the subordinate concerned. There may be situation which are out of control, in that situation, leader necessity stand behind the subordinate to encourage and support and find a solution for the problem.
- Proper use of Power: Leader necessity be careful while exercising his power or authority in relation to his subordinates. According to the situation he may exercise different types of powers like reward power, corrective power, coercive power, expert power, formal or informal power etc., for the positive response from his subordinate. Create sure that while using the power the response from his subordinate should not yield a negative response to the group work. Leader necessity analyze the situation before exercising his power.
- Time Management: Leader necessity ensure the timely completion of the work while ensuring the quality and efficiency of the work. At different stages, the work should be complete according to the plan. The timely completion of the individual tasks will ensure the completion of the group work. Leader should monitor and ensure the individual task at different stages are accomplished as per the plan.
- Secure effectiveness of group-effort: To get the maximum contribution towards the achievement of objectives the leader necessity delegate authority, ensure the availability of the adequate resources, give for a reward system to improve the efficiency of capable workmen, invite participation of employees in decision making and communicate necessary information to the employees.

## **Basic styles of Leaders**

### ***Authoritarian***

The authoritarian leadership style or autocratic leader keeps strict, close control over followers through keeping close regulation of policy's and procedures given to followers. To keep main emphasis on the distinction of the authoritarian leader and their followers, these types of leaders create sure

to only make a separate professional relationship. Direct supervision is what they consider to be key in maintaining a successful environment and follower ship. In fear of followers being unproductive, authoritarian leaders keep close supervision and feel this is necessary in order for anything to be done.

Examples of authoritarian communicative behavior: a police officer directing traffic, a teacher ordering a student to do his or her assignment, and a supervisor instructing a subordinate to clean a workstation. All of these positions require a separate set of characteristics that provide the leader the position to get things in order or get a point crossways. Authoritarian Traits: sets goals individually, engages primarily in one-method and downward communication, controls discussion with followers, and donates interaction.

### ***Paternalistic Leadership***

The method a Paternalistic leader works is through acting as a father figure through taking care of their subordinates as a parent would. In this style of leadership the leader supplies complete concern for his followers or workers. In return he receives the complete trust and loyalty of his people. Workers under this style of leader are expected to become totally committed to what the leader believes and will not strive off and work independently. The relationship flanked by these co-workers and leader are very solid. The workers are expected to stay with a company for a longer period of time because of the loyalty and trust. Not only do they treat each other like family inside the work force, but outside too. These workers are able to go to each other with any problems they have concerning something because they consider in what they say is going to truly help them.

One of the downsides to a paternalistic leader is that the leader could start to play favorites in decisions. This leader would contain the workers more apt to follow and start to exclude the ones who were less loyal. In today's market paternalism is more hard to come through according to Padavic and Earnest who wrote "business dimensional and Organizational Counseling." They consider this because there have become more lay-offs and stronger unionization. This affects paternalistic leaders because the co-workers may not consider that their jobs are 100% ensured. When this happens, workers begin to look for bigger and better job opportunities instead of staying at one company for a longer period of time. Because of this, The leader may be thinking that you could be leaving and not fully consider you when you tell them something in relation to the job opportunity. This could put the workers and leader at risk for a bad situation.

According to B. M. Bass who wrote *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, workers who follow paternalistic leadership also have better organization skills. The leader encourages organization because they allow the workers to complete tasks so that they can stay on top of their work. The workers complete tasks this boosts self-confidence and it creates them work harder to reach a goal and exceed the goal to prove to their boss they are

working hard. Having this style of leadership can also help implement a reward system. This system will allow their workers to work even better because there is something for them at the end of the tunnel. While doing this they will also be able to accomplish more work in a set time frame.

### ***Democratic***

The democratic leadership style consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members through promoting the interests of the group members and through practicing social equality.

This style of leadership encompasses discussion, debate and sharing of ideas and encouragement of people to feel good in relation to their involvement. The boundaries of democratic participation tend to be circumscribed through the organization or the group needs and the instrumental value of people's attributes (skills, attitudes, etc.). The democratic style encompasses the notion that everyone, through virtue of their human status, should play a part in the group's decisions. Though, the democratic style of leadership still requires guidance and control through a specific leader. The democratic style demands the leader to create decisions on who should be described upon within the group and who is given the right to participate in, create and vote on decisions. Traits of a Good Leader compiled through the Santa Clara University and the Tom Peters Group:

- Honest — Display sincerity, integrity, and candor in all your actions. Deceptive behavior will not inspire trust.
- Competent — Base your actions on cause and moral principles. Do not create decisions based on childlike emotional desires or feelings.
- Forward-looking — Set goals and have a vision of the future. The vision necessity be owned throughout the organization. Effective leaders envision what they want and how to get it. They habitually pick priorities stemming from their basic values.
- Inspiring — Display confidence in all that you do. Through showing endurance in mental, physical, and spiritual stamina, you will inspire others to reach for new heights. Take charge when necessary.
- Intelligent — Read, study, and seek challenging assignments.
- Fair-minded — Show fair treatment to all people. Prejudice is the enemy of justice. Display empathy through being sensitive to the feelings, values, interests, and well-being of others.
- Broad-minded — Seek out diversity.
- Courageous — Have the perseverance to accomplish a goal, regardless of the seemingly insurmountable obstacles. Display a confident calmness when under stress.
- Straightforward — Use sound judgment to create a good decisions at the right time.

- Imaginative — Create timely and appropriate changes in your thinking, plans, and methods. Show creativity through thinking of new and better goals, ideas, and solutions to problems. Be innovative!

Research has found that this leadership style is one of the most effective and makes higher productivity, better contributions from group members and increased group morale. Democratic leadership can lead to better ideas and more creative solutions to problems because group members are encouraged to share their thoughts and ideas. While democratic leadership is one of the most effective leadership styles, it does have some potential downsides. In situations where roles are unclear or time is of the essence, democratic leadership can lead to communication failures and uncompleted projects. Democratic leadership works best in situations where group members are skilled and eager to share their knowledge. It is also significant to have plenty of time to allow people to contribute, develop a plan and then vote on the best course of action.

### ***Laissez-faire***

The laissez-faire leadership style is where all the rights and power to create decisions is fully given to the worker. This was first described through Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1938, beside with the autocratic leadership and the democratic leadership styles. The laissez-faire style is sometimes described as a "hands off" leadership style because the leader delegates the tasks to their followers while providing little or no direction to the followers. If the leader withdraws too much from their followers it can sometimes result in a lack of productivity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction.

Laissez-faire leaders allow followers to have complete freedom to create decisions concerning the completion of their work. It allows followers a high degree of autonomy and self-rule, while at the same time offering guidance and support when requested. The laissez-faire leader using guided freedom gives the followers with all materials necessary to accomplish their goals, but does not directly participate in decision making unless the followers request their assistance.

This is an effective style to use when:

- Followers are highly skilled, experienced, and educated.
- Followers have pride in their work and the drive to do it successfully on their own.
- Outside experts, such as staff specialists or consultants are being used.
- Followers are trustworthy and experienced.

This style should NOT be used when:

- Followers feel insecure at the unavailability of a leader.
- The leader cannot or will not give regular feedback to their followers.

### ***Transactional***

The transactional style of leadership was first described through Max Weber in 1947 and then later described through Bernard Bass in 1981. Mainly used through management, transactional leaders focus their leadership on motivating followers through a system of rewards and punishments. There are two factors which form the basis for this system, Contingent Reward and management-through-exception.

- Contingent Reward Gives rewards, materialistic or psychological, for effort and recognizes good performance.
- Management-through-Exception allows the leader to maintain the status quo. The leader intervenes when subordinates do not meet acceptable performance levels and initiates corrective action to improve performance. Management through exception helps reduce the workload of managers being that they are only described-in when workers deviate from course.

This type of leader identifies the needs of their followers and provides rewards to satisfy those needs in exchange of certain level of performance. Transactional leaders focus on increasing the efficiency of established routines and procedures. They are more concerned with following existing rules than with making changes to the organization. A transactional leader establishes and standardizes practices that will help the organization reaches,

- Maturity
- Goal-setting
- Efficiency of operation
- Increasing productivity.

### ***Transactional leadership style effect on work teams***

In a survey done through Jun Liu, Xiaoyu Liu and Xianju Zeng on the correlation of Transactional leadership and how innovations can be affected through team emotions. The research was composed of 90 work teams, with a total of 460 members and 90 team leaders. The study found that there is a relationship flanked by emotions, labor behavior and transactional leadership that affect for the team. Depending on the level of emotions of the team; this can affect the transactional leader in a positive or negative method. Transactional leaders work better in teams where there is a lower level of emotions going into the project. This is because individuals are able to

- Think freely when setting their emotions aside from their work.

- Have all of their focus on the given task.

A transactional leader is:

1. Negatively affected when the emotional level is high.
2. Positively affected when the emotional level is low.

Transactional leadership presents a form of strategic leadership that is significant for the organizations development. Transactional leadership is essential for team innovativeness.

### ***Transformational***

A transformational leader is a type of person in which the leader is not limited through his or her followers' perception. The main objective is to work to *change* or *transform* his or her followers' *needs* and *redirect* their thinking. Leaders that follow the transformation style of leading, challenge and inspire their followers with a sense of purpose and excitement. They also make a vision of what they aspire to be, and communicate this thought to others (their followers). According to Schultz and Schultz, there are three recognized characteristics of a transformational leader:

- Charismatic leadership has a broad knowledge of field, has a self-promoting personality, high/great energy level, and willing to take risk and use irregular strategies in order to stimulate their followers to think independently
- Individualized consideration
- Intellectual stimulation

### **Personal qualities of leaders**

Having a great thought , and assembling a team to bring that concept to life is the first step in creating a successful business venture. While finding a new and unique thought is unusual enough; the skill to successfully execute this thought is what separates the dreamers from the entrepreneurs. Though you see yourself, whatever your age may be, as soon as you create that exciting first hire, you have taken the first steps in becoming a powerful leader. When money is tight, stress levels are high, and the visions of instant success don't happen like you thought, it's easy to let those emotions get to you, and thereby your team. Take a breath, calm yourself down, and remind yourself of the leader you are and would like to become. Here are some key qualities that every good leader should possess, and learn to emphasize.

## ***Honesty***

Whatever ethical plane you hold yourself to, when you are responsible for a team of people, it's significant to raise the bar even higher. Your business and its employees are a reflection of yourself, and if you create honest and ethical behavior as a key value, your team will follow suit. As we do at Rock The Post, the crowd funding platform for entrepreneurs and small businesses I co-founded, try to create a list of values and core beliefs that both you and your brand represent, and post this in your office. Promote a healthy interoffice lifestyle, and encourage your team to live up to these standards. Through emphasizing these standards, and displaying them yourself, you will hopefully influence the office environment into a friendly and helpful workspace.

## ***Skill to Delegate***

Finessing your brand vision is essential to creating an organized and efficient business, but if you don't learn to trust your team with that vision, you might never progress to the after that stage. It's significant to keep in mind that trusting your team with your thought is a sign of strength, not weakness. Delegating tasks to the appropriate departments is one of the most significant skills you can develop as your business grows. The emails and tasks will begin to pile up, and the more you stretch yourself thin, the lower the quality of your work will become, and the less you will produce.

The key to delegation is identifying the strengths of your team, and capitalizing on them. Find out what each team member enjoys doing most. Chances are if they find that task more enjoyable, they will likely put more thought and effort behind it. This will not only prove to your team that you trust and consider in them, but will also free up your time to focus on the higher level tasks, that should not be delegated. It's a fine balance, but one that will have a vast impact on the productivity of your business.

## ***Communication***

Knowing what you want accomplished may seem clear in your head, but if you try to explain it to someone else and are met with a blank expression, you know there is a problem. If this has been your experience, then you may want to focus on honing your communication skills. Being able to clearly and succinctly describe what you want done is very significant. If you can't relate your vision to your team, you won't all be working towards the same goal.

Training new members and creating a productive work environment all depend on healthy lines of communication. Whether that stems from an open door policy to your office, or making it a point to talk to your staff on a daily basis, making yourself accessible to discuss interoffice issues is vital. Your team will learn to trust and depend on you, and will be less hesitant to work harder.

### ***Sense of Humor***

If your website crashes, you lose that major client, or your funding dries up, guiding your team through the process without panicking is as challenging as it is significant. Morale is connected to productivity, and it's your job as the team leader to instill a positive energy. That's where your sense of humor will finally pay off. Encourage your team to laugh at the mistakes instead of crying. If you are constantly learning to find the humor in the struggles, your work environment will become a happy and healthy space, where your employees look forward to working in, rather than dreading it. Create it a point to crack jokes with your team and encourage personal discussions of weekend plans and trips. It's these short breaks from the task at hand that help keep productivity levels high and morale even higher. At Rock The Post, we place a vast emphasis on humor and a light atmosphere. Our office is dog friendly, and we really consider it is the small, light hearted moments in the day that help keep our work creative and fresh. One custom that we like to do and brings the team closer is we plan a fun prank on all new employees, on their first day. It breaks the ice and immediately makes that sense of familiarity.

### ***Confidence***

There may be days where the future of your brand is worrisome and things aren't going according to plan. This is true with any business, large or small, and the most significant thing is not to panic. Part of your job as a leader is to put out fires and maintain the team morale. Keep up your confidence level, and assure everyone that setbacks are natural and the significant thing is to focus on the superior goal. As the leader, through staying calm and confident, you will help keep the team feeling the same. Keep in mind, your team will take cues from you, so if you exude a level of calm damage control, your team will pick up on that feeling. The key objective is to keep everyone working and moving ahead.

### ***Commitment***

If you expect your team to work hard and produce quality content, you're going to need to lead through instance. There is no greater motivation than seeing the boss down in the trenches working alongside everyone else, showing that hard work is being done on every level. Through proving your commitment to the brand and your role, you will not only earn the respect of your team, but will also instill that same hardworking energy among your staff. It's significant to show your commitment not only to the work at hand, but also to your promises. If you pledged to host a holiday party, or uphold summer Fridays, keep your word. You want to make a reputation for not just working hard, but also be recognized as a fair leader. Once you have gained the respect of your team, they are more likely to deliver the peak amount of

quality work possible.

### ***Positive Attitude***

You want to keep your team motivated towards the sustained success of the company, and keep the energy levels up. Whether that means providing snacks, coffee, relationship advice, or even just an occasional beer in the office, keep in mind that everyone on your team is a person. Keep the office mood a fine balance flanked by productivity and playfulness. If your team is feeling happy and upbeat, chances are they won't mind staying that extra hour to finish a report, or devoting their best work to the brand.

### ***Creativity***

Some decisions will not always be so clear-cut. You may be forced at times to deviate from your set course and create an on the fly decision. This is where your creativity will prove to be vital. It is throughout these critical situations that your team will look to you for guidance and you may be forced to create a quick decision. As a leader, it's significant to learn to think outside the box and to choose which of two bad choices is the best option. Don't immediately choose the first or easiest possibility; sometimes it's best to provide these issues some thought, and even turn to your team for guidance. Through utilizing all possible options before making a rash decision, you can typically reach the end conclusion you were aiming for.

### ***Intuition***

When leading a team through uncharted waters, there is no roadmap on what to do. Everything is uncertain, and the higher the risk, the higher the pressure. That is where your natural intuition has to kick in. Guiding your team through the process of your day-to-day tasks can be honed down to a science. But when something unexpected occurs, or you are thrown into a new scenario, your team will look to you for guidance. Drawing on past experience is a good reflex, as is reaching out to your mentors for support. Eventually though, the tough decisions will be up to you to decide and you will need to depend on your gut instinct for answers. Learning to trust yourself is as significant as your team learning to trust you.

### ***Skill to Inspire***

Creating a business often involves a bit of forecasting. Especially in the beginning stages of a startup, inspiring your team to see the vision of the successes to come is vital. Create your team feel invested in the accomplishments of the company. Whether everyone owns a piece of equity, or you operate on a bonus system, generating enthusiasm for the hard work you are all putting in is so significant. Being able to inspire your team is great

for focusing on the future goals, but it is also significant for the current issues. When you are all mired deep in work, morale is low, and energy levels are fading, recognize that everyone needs a break now and then. Acknowledge the work that everyone has dedicated and commend the team on each of their efforts. It is your job to keep spirits up, and that begins with an appreciation for the hard work.

## **REVIEW QUESTIONS**

- What do you mean through the term ‘group’? Briefly discuss.
- Describe group. Write in brief in relation to the characteristics of group.
- Elucidate briefly in relation to the different types of group.
- Differentiate flanked by formal and informal group with examples
- Explain the basic styles of leaders

## **AGGRESSION AND PUBLIC OPINION AND PROPAGANDA**

### **STRUCTURE**

- Learning Objectives
- Aggression
- Public Opinion and propaganda
- Review Questions

### **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

After successful completion of this Unit, you will to be able to:

- Describe aggression;
- Differentiate flanked by several types of aggression;
- Analyze the several causes of aggression;
- Explain effective techniques to reduce aggression;
- Understand the public opinion; and
- Explain the techniques of propaganda.

### **AGGRESSION**

## **Nature And Types Of Aggression**

Separately from physical violence against the body of other humans, there may also be verbal abuse and verbal assault etc., which all can be measured as aggression. In addition, damaging or destroying another's property can be a highly effective method of aggressing against another person. Even something as subtle and controlled as a social snub can be a powerful source of harm to the victim, a harm that is clearly planned through the person delivering it. Accidental harm is not aggressive because it is not planned. Harm that is an incidental through-product of helpful actions is also not aggressive, because the harm-doer believes that the target is not motivated to avoid the action (e.g., pain experienced throughout a dental procedure). Similarly, the pain administered in sexual masochism is not aggressive because the victim is not motivated to avoid it. Indeed, the pain is actively solicited in service of a higher goal. Aggressive behaviour throughout early childhood is measured a part of the normal developmental process. Acts of aggression change throughout a person's life span. When young children lack verbal skills, aggression is predominantly physical. When verbal skills develop, they could be used as peaceful communication, but also for aggressive purposes. Outbursts of anger usually peak approximately 18 to 24 months of age and slowly decrease through five years of age. Tremblay et al., found that most children have experienced their onset of physical aggression through the end of their 2nd year. Early aggressive behaviour consists of crying, screaming, temper tantrums, biting, kicking, throwing, and breaking objects. At this stage, intention is instrumental.

Early childhood aggressive behaviour may be in response to parental authority and unrealistic expectations on the part of the parent toward their child. Later as social interactions augment, aggression may be directed towards peers. Later on, such behaviours as teasing, bullying, fighting, irritability, cruelty to animals, and fire-setting occur. Throughout early adolescence, more serious violence develops, including gang fights and use of weapons. In human research, a widely used definition of aggression is behaviour deliberately aimed at harming people and/or objects. In this definition harm has implicitly been defined as hurting someone physically, e. g. through kicking. Though, other forms of harm, like psychological harm, e. g. humiliating, and relational harm such as malicious gossiping, are just as significant. In addition to physical aggression, two other forms of aggression are currently recognized, namely psychological aggression and relational aggression.

Antisocial behaviour is defined as behaviour through which people are disadvantaged and basic norms and values are violated. Examples of such behaviours are lying, stealing and truancy. Aggressive behaviour then is a specific form of antisocial behaviour. Aggressive behaviour is an significant component of many common mental health disorders in young people,

including conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and intermittent explosive disorder. Effective treatment of aggression is significant not only because this behaviour is associated with negative developmental outcomes for perpetrators but also because it harms people in addition to the client

There are different types of aggression. Theoretical perspectives on aggression suggest that typographically and functionally separate subtypes of aggression exist. It is significant to consider the multidimensional nature of aggression because different stimuli combine with different types of physiological and mental processes to make separate forms of aggression. Although different classification systems for aggression have been proposed, as seen below, these typologies tend to overlap somewhat, with each system having a slightly different emphasis. The forms of types of aggression that are reviewed consist of the clinical classification, the incentive-based classification, the instrumental versus hostile classification, and the positive versus negative classification.

### ***Clinical Classification***

The clinical literature research, heavily influenced through the work of Feshbach has regularly referred to two forms of aggression the first form being “affective,” “reactive,” “suspicious,” “impulsive,” or “hot-blooded” aggression. This type of aggression is defined as a violent response to physical or verbal aggression initiated through others that is relatively uncontrolled and emotionally charged. In contrast, the second form of aggression is referred to as “predatory,” “instrumental,” “proactive,” or “cold-blooded” aggression. This type of aggression is characterized as controlled, purposeful aggression lacking in emotion that is used to achieve a desired goal, including the power and control of others.

### ***Instrumental versus Hostile Aggression***

Feshbach originally urbanized this typology, and it has been elaborated upon more recently through Atkins et al. (1993). This influential model separates aggression into instrumental and hostile functions. Instrumental aggression produces some positive reward or advantage (impact) on the aggressor unrelated to the victim’s discomfort. The purpose of hostile aggression is to induce injury or pain (negative impact) upon the victim. In this case, there is little or no advantage to the aggressor. This model has been widely studied in community samples of children and adults with varying results. One problem with this classification is that the constructs require careful delineation because several aggressive episodes will have components of both instrumental and hostile aggression.

### ***Proactive and Reactive Aggression***

A number of recent studies of aggression draw a distinction flanked by reactive and proactive aggression. The first of these conditions refers to aggressive behaviour that is enacted in response to provocation, such as an attack or an insult, and it is manifested in both self-suspicious and angry actions. The latter term refers to aggression that is initiated without apparent provocation, such as we see in bullying behaviour. Such behaviour is not evoked through anger, hostility or the need to defend oneself, but through other motives that relate to obtaining goods, asserting power, assuring the approval of reference groups and other such goals. Reactive and proactive aggression are the equivalent of what earlier theorists described affective and instrumental aggression.

### ***Positive versus Negative Aggression***

Usually speaking, aggression is measured to have a negative function that not only elicits disapproval from others, but also is evaluated as destructive and damaging in its consequences. Though, Blustein argues that the term “aggressive” behaviour is ambiguous, denoting both positive and negative behaviours. Ellis measured positive aggression to be healthy, productive behaviour if it promoted the basic values of survival, protection, happiness, social acceptance, preservation, and intimate relations. In the context of positive aggression, a certain amount of aggression is thought to be necessary and adaptive throughout childhood and adolescence because it helps build autonomy and identity.

Furthermore, a certain degree of aggression or dominance helps to facilitate engagement in cooperative and competitive activities with one’s peers. Channeled in the proper direction, human aggression is the force that enables a person to be healthfully self-assertive, dominant, and independent and to achieve mastery of both the environment and the self. So, it is whispered that positive aggression takes several forms, including self-protection, standing up in the face of negation, pushing for new possibilities, and defending against harm. With respect to negative aggression, this behaviour has been defined as acts that result in personal injury or destruction of property. Alternatively, it also has been defined as attacking behaviour that harms another of the same species. Negative aggression also is defined as forceful action that is directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another living being.

Encroaching on the home or territory of a resident and causing others financial, physical, and emotional damage also is incorporated in negative aggression. Negative aggression is measured unhealthy because it induces heightened emotions that can in the long-term be damaging to the individual.

## **Process Of Aggression**

Aggression has been measured in a number of different methods. Perhaps the most popular technique has been to use rating scales that are completed through either the mother of the child or the schoolteacher. One well-used instance of such a rating scale is the Child Behaviour Checklist. A second regularly used measure of aggression consists of self-report measures where the individual fills out a questionnaire to assess different aggressive attitudes and behaviours. Perhaps the most popular is the Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory.

Aggression also can be measured through observers. For instance, the Overt Aggression Scale measures four different types of ward behaviour in psychiatric patients through nurse raters. Furthermore, aggression can be measured using a subtype scale that can classify different types of aggression. Proactive and reactive aggression can be reliably and validly assessed through a brief self-report measure with a reading age of eight years. In addition, aggression and aggressive-related measures can be assessed in the justice system through using

- official files of the police, court, and correctional agencies
- self-report measures, for instance Self-Reported Delinquency
- Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R), a rating scale intended to measure traits of psychopathic personality disorder.

PCL-R is the most popular clinical instrument for assessing psychopathic behaviour. Finally, aggression may be assessed using clinical projective tests such as the Thematic Apperception Test.

## **Causes Of Aggression**

### ***Neurophysiologic Perspectives***

Neurophysiologic perspectives argue that aggression is a biological response that is under the control of the brain. There are many significant principles. It emphasizes the role of the brain, hormones and neurotransmitters in aggressive behaviour; It stresses that our behaviour is largely governed through biological forces rather than environmental ones; It states that aggression is innate not learned.

### ***Biological Causes***

Research is beginning to indicate that biological processes (internal stimuli) may serve a role in predisposing to aggression. Five specific processes

are selected for brief description: (1) brain dysfunction, (2) testosterone, (3) serotonin, (4) birth complications, and (5) nutrition deficiency.

### *Brain Dysfunction*

Aggressive criminals have been found to have poor brain functioning. One source of proof comes from neuropsychological tests, which have indicated poor functioning of the frontal and temporal regions of the brain in violent offenders. In addition, EEG studies have shown that aggressive prisoners are more likely to show EEG abnormalities.

Aggressive psychopaths are more likely to show excessive slow EEG wave. A third source of proof comes from brain imaging studies. Aggressive prisoners have been shown to have reduced glucose metabolism in the prefrontal region of the brain, while individuals with antisocial personality disorder show an 11% reduction in the volume of prefrontal gray matter compared to normal and psychiatric control groups. The cause why brain dysfunction predisposes to aggression may be because the prefrontal region of the brain normally acts to control and regulate the emotional reactions generated through deeper, limbic brain structures like the amygdale. If the prefrontal region of the brain is functioning poorly, it will be less able to keep these aggressive impulses in check, resulting in an increased likelihood of impulsive, aggressive acts.

### *Testosterone*

Sex hormones appear to play a role in shaping aggressive behaviour. Aggressive, violent offenders have been found to have significantly higher levels of testosterone than controls. Female criminals also have been found to be much more likely to commit crimes approximately the menstrual phase of their cycle when progesterone is low, while aggression is reduced approximately the time of ovulation when estrogen and progesterone levels are high. Weight-lifters who take anabolic steroids become more aggressive and hostile, and normal men who are given testosterone become more irritable and hostile.

### *Serotonin*

There has been a recent augment in research on neurotransmitters and their relationship to aggression in animals and humans. Although there is emerging data implicating the role of a diversity of neurotransmitters in mediating impulsive aggressive behaviour in humans, most data have suggested a particularly strong role for serotonin. Both animal and human research has shown that aggressors have lower levels of the neurotransmitter serotonin.

Nevertheless, the links flanked by brain chemistry and aggression in humans are intricate, because the environment plays a key role in regulating neurochemistry.

Social dominance influences serotonin levels in monkeys, and alcohol consumption also plays a important role. Birth complications have been repeatedly found to be associated with later increased aggressive behaviour in childhood and criminal activity in adults . Interestingly, birth complications alone have rarely been found to have a direct link with aggression and violence. Instead, aggressive behaviour is especially likely to develop when birth complications combine with psychosocial risk factors such as disadvantaged family environment, and poor parenting. Specific birth complications e.g., forceps delivery etc. are whispered to result in central nervous system damage, which in turn impairs brain function, which then predisposes aggression.

### *Nutrition Deficiency*

Research on nutrition deficiency and aggressive behaviour is beginning to get attention. Factors contain food additives, hypoglycemia, cholesterol, and deficiencies in protein, iron, and zinc. In humans, the male offspring of pregnant women starved throughout the German blockade of food to Holland at the end of World War II had 2.5 times the rates of antisocial personality disorder in adulthood compared to controls. In addition, many studies reported that iron deficiency is directly associated with aggressive behaviour and conduct disorder. Similarly, zinc deficiency has been found to be connected with aggressive behaviour in both animals and humans. It is whispered that early malnutrition negatively impacts brain growth and development, and that brain impairments predispose individuals to antisocial and violent behaviour through impacting cognitive functions.

### *Environment and Genes*

Twin and adoption studies suggest a large shared (family) environmental effect, a moderate non-shared (unique) environmental effect, and a modest genetic effect. Typical twin concordance rates for adolescent delinquency are 87% for monozygotic twins and 72% for dizygotic twins. Adoption studies suggest that genetically vulnerable children—that is, children whose birth parents were antisocial—may be especially susceptible to unfavorable family circumstances. The genetic element seems to be stronger for adult criminality than childhood conduct disorder and delinquency.

### ***Parental Rearing Style***

Five characteristics of how parents bring up their children have been shown repeatedly to be strongly associated with long term antisocial behaviour problems, namely (a) poor supervision, (b) erratic, harsh discipline, (c) parental disharmony, (d) rejection of the child, and (e) low involvement in the child's activities. One study showed that among antisocial boys aged 10, differences in parenting styles predicted over 30 % of the variance in aggression two years later.

### ***Parent-child Interaction Pattern***

Direct observation in the home shows that much aggressive behaviour in children is influenced through the method parents behave towards them. In several families with antisocial children the parents do little to encourage polite or considerate behaviour through the child. Such behaviour is often ignored and rendered ineffective. Yet regularly when the child yells or has a tantrum he or she gets attention, often the parent provides in, so the child wins and soon learns to adapt accordingly. The coexistent unresponsiveness to the child's communications and emotional needs contributes further to the child's disturbance.

### ***Parental Influence on Children's Emotions and Attitudes***

Difficulties can often be traced back to infancy. A high proportion of toddlers who go on to develop conduct problems show disorganized attachment patterns, experiencing fear, anger, and distress on reunion with their parent after a brief separation. This behaviour is likely to be a response to frightening, unavailable, and inconsistent parenting. The security of infant attachment can be predicted with substantial certainty before the child is even born, from the emotionally distorted, confused style in which the mother talks in relation to the relationships with her own parents. Through middle childhood, aggressive children are quick to construe neutral overtures through others as hostile and have difficulty judging other people's feelings. They are poor at generating constructive solutions to conflicts, believing instead that aggression will be effective. This quickness to take offence at the slightest opportunity is reflected on the street in sensitivity to disrespect, which can lead to swift retribution. This designates the fragile self esteem and confrontational view of the world that these young people have come to develop after experiencing years of frustration and failure. Some find that being violent creates them feel good in relation to the themselves and provide them control.

### ***Difficulties with Friends and at School***

In the school playground these children lack the skills to participate and take turns without upsetting others and becoming aggressive. Peer rejection typically ensues quickly, and the children then associate with the other antisocial children, who share their set of values. Those with difficulty reading typically fail to get any qualifications through the time they leave school, and they become unemployed. This may contribute to persisting aggressive behaviour.

### ***Predisposing Child Characteristics***

genetically determined. Children who show this restless, impulsive pattern of behaviour do not necessarily start off aggressive, but over time a proportion become so. They have difficulty waiting their turns in social encounters and games and so easily provoke retaliation and get into fights. Where hyperactivity and conduct disorder coexist from an early age the long term outlook is especially poor.

Delinquents have repeatedly been shown to have an IQ that is 8-10 points lower than law abiding peers—and this is before the onset of aggressive behaviour. Other traits predisposing to conduct problems contain irritability and explosiveness, lack of social awareness and social anxiety, and reward seeking behaviour. The interplay flanked by a child's characteristics and the environment is intricate. As children grow older, their environment is increasingly determined through their own behaviour and choices. There may be turning points when certain decisions set the scene for years to come. Therefore it is not simply a young person's level of antisocial behaviour per se that determines later outcome but also how the behaviour shapes the social world inhabited later on. This has significant implications for intervention.

### ***Environmental Stressors***

#### ***Temperature***

When the temperature rises people tend to feel more disposed to aggressive behaviour. A researcher looked at incidents of violence crossways the USA and the corresponding weather reports. He found that when it was moderately hot (84°F) there was the most violence, but after the weather showed higher temperature, the violence decreased. This was backed up through a lab study through Baron and Bell who put participants in rooms of different temperatures then increased the heat in each of the rooms. The participants were asked to provide electric shocks. They found that as the temperature rose, the participants gave more electric shocks, but then once the temperatures got to extreme levels, the shocks decreased. Though, another

researcher described Anderson looked at cases of violent acts including rape, murder and assault. He found that there was a steady augment as the temperature rose but that there was no indication of decline in extreme heat. One problem with this theory is that it would almost certainly not be true to say that people in hotter countries are more aggressive.

### *Crowding*

A higher density of people leads to higher levels of aggression. This theory links to de-individuation. It is also unpleasant when your personal space is invaded. For instance, there is the most aggression beside the most heavily-congested roads. There are more prison riots when the population density in the prison is higher. A study shows there was more aggression in a day nursery as the nursery got more crowded.

Though, this pattern is not found in families, as people expect others to be in close proximity. This suggests that it is not just a high density, but overcrowding that is the problem. There are also limitations to this, as some people do not find encroachment of their personal space to be a problem. Furthermore, there are also cultural differences e.g. Arabs tend to stand very close together. Also, if you can confront people in relation to it, aggression can be reduced. Both crowding and heat lead to physiological arousal which leads to aggression. Though, this may depend on your interpretation of the arousal; for instance, crowds can be uplifting, fun and exciting.

### *Noise*

Noise is an unwanted sound that causes a negative effect. It can cause aggression when it is too loud or unpredictable. Glass and Singer mannered an experiment where participant were asked to complete a moths task and were then asked to complete a proof-reading task. Throughout the moths task, some of participants were subjected to noise, but all of them had quietness and no noise throughout the proofreading task. It was found that the people who had the noise in the first task made more mistakes in the second task. They made the most mistakes when the noise was very loud, was random and when they had no control over it.

### **Reducing Aggression**

Treatment needs to be targeted at major modifiable risk factors and its outcome measured objectively. It should preferably be at an early age as conduct disorder can be reliably detected early, has high stability, is amenable to treatment at a young age, and is very hard to eradicate in older children..

## ***Parent Training Programmes for Reducing Antisocial Behaviour in Children***

Little published proof exists that individual psychotherapy whether psychodynamic or cognitive behavioral, pharmacotherapy, general eclectic family work, or formal family therapy are effective in treating conduct disorder. Behaviorally based programmes to help parents, though, have uniformly been shown to be effective. For instance, the pioneering work of Patterson and colleagues showed that directly instructing parents while they interact with their children leads to important and lasting reduction in behavioral problems. Several other studies have replicated this.

### ***Developing a Programme***

It is better to organize a training programme for the parents and teenage children and this can be done through two or three disciplines coming together. To get results the professionals need to be trained in the specific methods, and for this one needs a manual and a training centre with well qualified trainers. Most uniformly effective programmes have at least 10 sessions, to augment the effects, a booster is desirable many months later. Also, intervention needs to be early, since teenage treatments have only small effects.

### ***Training Using Videotapes***

Although conventional one-to-one treatment is effective, a more cost effective approach is needed to treat superior numbers. One could have videos showing short vignettes of parents and children in common situations. They show the powerful effect of parents' behaviour on their child's activity, with examples of "right" and "wrong" methods to handle children. Ten to 14 parents attend a weekly two hour session for 12 weeks. Two therapists lead the group and promote discussion, so that all members grasp the principles; role play is used to practice the new techniques. Practical homework is set each week and cautiously reviewed with a trouble shooting approach.

### ***Other Training Programmes***

Among more rigorous programmes, the one urbanized through Puckering et al entails one day a week for 16 weeks. This programme has been shown to be effective in improving parenting in quite damaged families and enabling children to come off "at risk" child protection registers.

### ***Failure of Parent Training***

In several cases, aggression is caused through faulty parental behaviour, often because of parental psychiatric difficulties such as depression, drug and alcohol problems, and personality difficulties.

### ***Management of Hyperactivity***

Hyperactivity is separate from conduct disorder, although they often coexist. Psychological treatment has to be rather different. Rewards have to be given more contingently and more regularly and have to be changed more often. Tasks have to be broken down into shorter components. Specific, clear rules have to be set for each different situation, as these children have difficulty generalizing. School is often particularly hard as the demands for concentration are great, the distractions from other children higher than at home, and the level of adult supervision lower. Though, use of the principles outlined above can lead to useful improvements. Management with drugs (usually methylphenidate or dexamphetamine) is reserved for children with severe symptoms in both home and school (hyperkinetic syndrome). This syndrome occurs in just over 1% of boys. The short term effects of drug treatment are large; less is recognized in relation to long term benefits.

### **War and peace—aggression in several social settings**

War is an organized and often prolonged armed conflict that is accepted out through states or non-state actors. It is usually characterized through extreme violence, social disruption, and economic destruction. War should be understood as an actual, intentional and widespread armed conflict flanked by political communities, and so is defined as a form of political violence or intervention. The set of techniques used through a group to carry out war is recognized as warfare. An absence of war is usually described peace.

In 2003, Nobel Laureate Richard E. Smalley recognized war as the sixth (of ten) biggest problem facing humanity for the after that fifty years. In the 1832 treatise *On War*, Prussian military general and theoretician Carl von Clausewitz defined war as follows: "War is therefore an act of force to compel our enemy to do our will."

While some scholars see warfare as an inescapable and integral aspect of human nature, others argue that it is only inevitable under certain socio-cultural or ecological circumstances. Some scholars argue that the practice of war is not connected to any single type of political organization or society. Rather, as discussed through John Keegan in his *History of Warfare*, war is a

universal phenomenon whose form and scope is defined through the society that wages it. Another argument suggests that since there are human societies in which warfare does not exist, humans may not be naturally disposed for warfare, which emerges under scrupulous circumstances. The deadliest war in history, in conditions of the cumulative number of deaths since its start, is the Second World War, with 60–85 million deaths.

### **Factors ending a war**

The political and economic circumstances, in the peace that follows war, usually depend on the facts on the ground. Where evenly matched adversaries decide that the conflict has resulted in a stalemate, they may cease hostilities to avoid further loss of life and property. They may decide to restore the antebellum territorial boundaries, redraw boundaries at the line of military control, or negotiate to keep or exchange captured territory. Negotiations flanked by parties involved at the end of a war often result in a treaty, such as the Treaty of Versailles of 1919, which ended the First World War.

A warring party that surrenders or capitulates may have little negotiating power, with the victorious side either imposing a settlement or dictating most of the conditions of any treaty. A common result is that conquered territory is brought under the dominion of the stronger military power. An unconditional surrender is made in the face of overwhelming military force as an effort to prevent further harm to life and property. For instance, the Empire of Japan gave an unconditional surrender to the Allies of World War II after the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the preceding huge strategic bombardment of Japan and declaration of war and the immediate invasion of Manchuria through the Soviet Union. A settlement or surrender may also be obtained through deception or bluffing.

Several other wars, though, have ended in complete destruction of the opposing territory, such as the Battle of Carthage of the Third Punic War flanked by the Phoenician city of Carthage and Ancient Rome in 149 BC. In 146 BC the Romans burned the city, enslaved its citizens, and razed the buildings.

Some wars or aggressive actions end when the military objective of the victorious side has been achieved. Others do not, especially in cases where the state structures do not exist, or have collapsed prior to the victory of the conqueror. In such cases, disorganized guerilla warfare may continue for a considerable period. In cases of complete surrender conquered territories may be brought under the permanent dominion of the victorious side. A raid for the purposes of looting may be completed with the successful capture of goods. In other cases an aggressor may decide to end hostilities to avoid sustained losses and cease hostilities without obtaining the original objective, such as happened in the Iran–Iraq War.

Some hostilities, such as insurgency or civil war, may persist for long

periods of time with only a low level of military activity. In some cases there is no negotiation of any official treaty, but fighting may trail off and eventually stop after the political demands of the belligerent groups have been reconciled, a political settlement has been negotiated, the combatants are slowly killed or decide the conflict is futile, or the belligerents cease active military engagement but still threaten each other. A good instance is the Chinese Civil War which was essentially over through 1950, but in the second half of the 20th Century the People's Republic of China began fighting to isolate the Republic of China (commonly recognized as Taiwan) diplomatically, and still sporadically threatens the island with an invasion. For this cause, some historians consider the war not ended but continuing.

### **Theories for motivation**

There is no scholarly agreement on which are the most common motivations for war. Motivations may be different for those ordering the war than for those undertaking the war. For instance, in the Third Punic War, Rome's leaders may have wished to create war with Carthage for the purpose of eliminating a resurgent rival, while the individual soldiers may have been motivated through a wish to create money. Since several people are involved, a war may acquire a life of its own from the confluence of several different motivations.

An interpretation of the ancient Jewish commentary (BeReshit Rabbah) on the fight flanked by Cain and Abel in Genesis 4 states that there are three universal reasons for wars: A) Economics, B) Power, and C) Religion.

In *Why Nations Go to War*, through John G. Stoessinger, the author points out that both sides will claim that morality justifies their fight. He also states that the rationale for beginning a war depends on an overly optimistic assessment of the outcome of hostilities (casualties and costs), and on misperceptions of the enemy's intentions.

As the strategic and tactical characteristics of warfare are always changing, theories and doctrines relating to warfare are often reformulated before, throughout, and after every major war. Carl von Clausewitz said, 'Every age had its own kind of war, its own limiting circumstances, and its own peculiar preconceptions.' The one constant factor is war's employment of organized violence and the resultant destruction of property and/ or lives that necessarily follows.

### ***Psychoanalytic psychology***

Dutch psychoanalyst Joost Meerloo held that, "War is often...a mass discharge of accumulated internal rage (where)...the inner fears of mankind are discharged in mass destruction." Therefore war can sometimes be a means through which man's own frustration at his inability to master his own self is expressed and temporarily relieved via his unleashing of destructive behavior

upon *others*. In this destructive scenario, these *others* are made to serve as the scapegoat of man's own unspoken and subconscious frustrations and fears.

Other psychoanalysts such as E.F.M. Durban and John Bowlby have argued that human beings are inherently violent. This aggressiveness is fueled through displacement and projection where a person transfers his or her grievances into bias and hatred against other races, religions, nations or ideologies. Through this theory, the nation state preserves order in the local society while creating an outlet for aggression through warfare. If war is innate to human nature, as is presupposed and predetermined through several psychological theories, then there is little hope of ever escaping it.

The Italian psychoanalyst Franco Fornari, a follower of Melanie Klein, thought that war was the paranoid or projective “elaboration” of mourning. Fornari thought that war and violence develop out of our “love need”: our wish to preserve and defend the sacred object to which we are attached, namely our early mother and our fusion with her. For the adult, nations are the sacred objects that generate warfare. Fornari focused upon sacrifice as the essence of war: the astonishing willingness of human beings to die for their country, to provide over their bodies to their nation.

Despite Fornari's theory that man's altruistic desire for self-sacrifice for a noble cause is a contributing factor towards war, in history only a tiny fraction of wars have originated from a desire for war from the general populace. Distant more often the general population has been reluctantly drawn into war through its rulers. One psychological theory that looks at the leaders is advanced through Maurice Walsh. He argues that the general populace is more neutral towards war and that wars only occur when leaders with a psychologically abnormal disregard for human life are placed into power. War is caused through leaders that seek war such as Napoleon and Hitler. Such leaders most often come to power in times of crisis when the populace opts for a decisive leader, who then leads the nation to war.

## **War ethics**

The seeming contradiction flanked by warfare and morality has led to serious moral questions, which have been the subject of debate for thousands of years. The debate, usually speaking, has two main viewpoints: Pacifists, who consider that war is inherently immoral and so is never justified regardless of circumstances, and those who consider that war is sometimes necessary and can be moral.

There are two different characteristics to ethics in war, according to the most prominent and influential thought on justice and war: the Just War Theory. First is *Jus ad bellum* (literally translated as "right to war"), which dictates which unfriendly acts and circumstances justify a proper authority in declaring war on another nation. There are six main criteria for the declaration of a just war: first, any just war necessity be declared through a lawful

authority; second, it necessity be a just and righteous cause, with enough gravity to merit large-scale violence; third, the just belligerent necessity have rightful intentions – namely, that they seek to advance good and curtail evil; fourth, a just belligerent necessity have a reasonable chance of success; fifth, the war necessity be a last resort; and sixth, the ends being sought necessity be proportional to means being used.

Once a just war has been declared, the second standard, or aspect, is put into effect. *Jus in bello*, which literally translates to "right in war", are the ethical rules of conduct when conducting war. The two main principles in *jus in bello* are proportionality and discrimination. Proportionality regards how much force is necessary and morally appropriate to the ends being sought and the injustice suffered. The principle of Discrimination determines who are the legitimate targets in a war, and specifically creates a separation flanked by combatants, who it is permissible to kill, and non-combatants, who it is not. Failure to follow these rules can result in the loss of legitimacy for the just war belligerent, and so thereby forfeit the moral right and justice of their cause.

The Just War standard is as old as Western Civilization itself, and still has important impact on thinking in relation to the morality of wars and violence today. Just War Theory was foundational in the creation of the United Nations and in International Law's regulations on legitimate war.

These two positions usually cover the broad philosophical and ethical bents mainstream society. Though, there are many theories on and in relation to the War which are in the minority in culture, but which, because of the influence they have had in recent history, demand mention here. These strains of thought on human society and war can be broken up into two main camps: Marxist and Fascist, both of which view war as purely practical.

Marxism, and other such historicist ideals, hold that history advances through a set of dialectics (as stated through Heinrich Moritz Chalybäus: thesis, antithesis, synthesis). Marx, and his followers, in scrupulous held that history advances through violence. Marxism–Leninism, in fact, held the belief that outright incitement to violence and war was necessary to topple Capitalism and free the proletariat. In these theories, the question of ethics has no place, as the value of the war is entirely dependent on whether it advances the revolution or synthesis.

Fascism, and the ideals it encompasses, such as Pragmatism, Racism, and Social Darwinism, hold that violence is good. Pragmatism holds that war and violence can be good if it serves the ends of the people, without regard for universal morality. Racism holds that violence is good so that a master race can be established, or to purge an inferior race from the earth, or both. Social Darwinism thinks that violence is sometimes necessary to weed the unfit from society so that civilization can flourish. These are broad archetypes for the general position that the ends justify the means.

## Psychological Causes of War

The so-described psychological causes of war are the response of human nature to irritations which can be traced to this cause either directly or indirectly. To say that all men will fight if sufficiently irritated seems to me to be an argument against irritating them rather than against human nature. It is not the irritation which causes the economic war, it is the economic war which causes the irritation. Military war is an intensification of economic war, and differs only in method and not in principle. The armaments industry, for instance, gives employment and high wages to at least the same extent that it gives profits to employers, and I cannot see any difference flanked by the culpability of the employee and that of the employer. I have no interest, direct or indirect, in the armaments industry, but I am fairly familiar with Big Business, and I do not consider that the bribery and corruption, of which we have heard so much in connection with armaments, is any worse in that trade than in any other.

So long, then, as we are prepared to agree, firstly, that the removal of industrial unemployment is the primary object of statesmanship, and, secondly, that the capture of foreign markets is the shortest path to the attainment of this objective, we have the primary economic irritant to military war always with us, and, moreover, we have it in an accelerating rate of growth, because production is expanding through the use of power machinery, and undeveloped markets are contracting. Any village which has two grocery shops, each competing for an insufficient, and decreasing, amount of business, while continually enlarging its premises, is a working demonstration of the economic causes of war - is, in fact, itself at war through economic methods.

I do not consider that it is sensible to lecture the public of any or all of the nations on either the wickedness or the horrors of war, or to ask for goodwill to abolish military war or the trade in armaments, so long as it remains true that, if one of the village grocers captures the whole of the other grocer's business, the second grocer and his employees will suffer. Or if it remains true that if one nation captures the whole of another nation's trade the population of the second nation will be unemployed, and, being unemployed, they will suffer also. It is poverty and economic insecurity which submits human nature to the greatest strain, a statement which is easily provable through comparing suicide statistics with bankruptcy statistics and business depression. Suicides are less in numbers throughout wars, not because people like wars, but because there is more money about. Suicides are less in number throughout trade booms for the same cause. To know, so, whether war is inevitable, we have to know whether, firstly, there is enough real wealth accessible to keep the whole population in comfort without the whole of the 'population being employed, and, secondly, if this is so, what is it that prevents this wealth from being distributed.' In regard to the first question, I consider there can be no doubt as to the answer. We are all beginning to be familiar with the phrase

"poverty amidst plenty", and it is usually admitted that the crisis of the past decade has been a crisis of glut and not a crisis of scarcity. Yet throughout that crisis, poverty has been widely extended, because unemployment has been widely extended. So that we have experimental proof that full employment is not necessary to produce the wealth that we require - it is only necessary to the end that we may be able to distribute wages - quite a different matter. In regard to the second question, so, we know it is lack of money in the hands of individuals to enable them to buy the wealth which is accessible, and not the lack of accessible goods, which creates men poor. As our arrangements are at the present time, money is primarily distributed in respect of employment, which, as the glut has shown, is in several cases not necessary, or even desirable. So that it is not too much to say that the causes of war and the causes of poverty amidst plenty are the same, and they may be found in the monetary and wage system, and that broadly speaking, the cure for poverty and the beginnings of the cure for war can be found in a simple rectification of the money system. This rectification necessity, I think, take the form of a National Dividend, either in a simple or more intricate form, so that while there is real wealth to be distributed, nobody shall lack for want of money with which to buy. It has already been shown that money is actually made through the banking system, and not through agriculture or industry. The "Encyclopedia Britannica" states the matter clearly in its article on banking in the words: "Banks lend money through creating the means of payment out of nothing."

It seems hard to create it clear that the proposal for a National Dividend, which would enable the products of our industrial system to be bought through our own population, has nothing to do with Socialism, as that is commonly understood. The main thought of Socialism appears to be the nationalization of productive undertakings and their administration through Government departments. Whatever merits such a proposal may have, it does not touch the difficulty we have been considering.

The provision of a National Dividend is merely to place in the hand of each one of the population, in the form of dividend-paying shares, a share of what is now recognized as the National Debt, without, though, confiscating that which is already in private hands, since the National Credit, is, in fact immensely greater than the portion of the National Debt which now gives incomes to individuals.

The practical effect of a National Dividend would be, firstly, to give a secure source of income to individuals who, though it might be desirable to augment it through work, when obtainable, would, nevertheless, give all the necessary purchasing power to maintain self-respect and health. Through providing a steady demand upon our producing system, it would go a long method towards stabilizing business circumstances, and would assure producers of a constant home market for their goods. We already have the beginnings of such a system in our several pension schemes and unemployment insurance, but the defect for the moment of these is that they

are put forward in conjunction with schemes of taxation which go a long method towards neutralizing their beneficial effect. While this is inevitable under our present monetary system, it is distant from being inevitable when the essentially public nature of the monetary system receives the recognition which is its due, but is not yet admitted through our bankers.

It may be asked, with cause, why the provision of a National Dividend, even if effective in removing the prime motive for aggressive war on the part of Great Britain, would so affect the motives of other nations as to prevent them from making war upon us. I think the answer to this is twofold. In the first place, I consider it to be, while the present financial system persists, merely sentimental to suppose that a weak nation, particularly if it be also a rich nation, is a factor making for peace. Quite the contrary. It is as sensible to say that a bank would never be robbed if it had paper walls. International bankers are, approximately to a man, strong advocates of national disarmament, but their bank clerks, alone among civilian employees in this country, are armed with revolvers, and the strength of bank premises compares with that of modern fortresses. Strength, unaccompanied through a motive for aggression, is a factor making for peace. A radical modification of the existing financial system will create it possible to build up a strong and united nation free from economic dissension, which would, through its strength, offer a powerful deterrent to aggressive war. And, secondly the spectacle of a contented and prosperous Britain, willing to trade but not forced through unemployment to fight for trade, would give an irresistible object-lesson in genuine progress and would be imitated everywhere.

## **Facts In Relation To The War**

### ***The Casualties Of Conflict***

In armed conflicts since 1945, 90 per cent of casualties have been civilians compared to 50 per cent in the Second World War and 10 per cent in the First. The planning and execution of war remains controlled through men. But women and children are the main victims of violence in war and peace.

### ***Killer Kids***

A contribution to the militarization of society is to socialize children into thinking violence and war are justifiable and glorious. From military, defense and weapons-industry recruitment schemes to action-hero toys, society makes killers.

- There are at least 250,000 child soldiers fighting in armed conflict.

- Most countries consider young soldiers 'volunteers'. But often coercion is involved – in Uganda approximately 8,000 children have been abducted for use as soldiers or prostitutes.
- Britain's Manchester airport has had more than 1,000 security alerts a year caused through children taking toy guns on holiday.
- Through the age of 16 an American child has seen, on average, 18,000 murders on television.

### ***War On The Homefront***

Even in peacetime, women are distant more likely to experience violent abuse than men – for instance one out of every six pregnant women in the US is battered throughout pregnancy.

### ***The Warmongers***

Governments and national leaders are often the most horrific perpetrators of violence. Torture occurs in more than 100 countries and is accepted out as part of government policy in at least 40. And governments form a crucial part of the military-industrial intricate that is responsible for churning out the weapons and methods of war.

### ***Rule Of Law***

International co-operation and law can support local peace processes.

- Two Harvard University professors propose an international convention making it a crime for individuals, such as scientists and chief executive officers, to engage in the production of chemical and biological weapons, therefore limiting the access of terrorist groups or governments to this capability. Such treaties are already in effect concerning piracy, genocide, aeroplane-hijacking and harming diplomats on duty.
- International courts can offer a system of justice crossways borders. But they necessity be backed through political will and resources – while the Nuremberg Court at the end of World War Two was given 2,000 prosecutions staff, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda has less than 50.
- A treaty has been signed to establish an International Criminal Court – a UN body which would be able to hear charges of genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes.

## ***The Price Of Peace***

Several individual countries spend over the three-per-cent average of GDP that the world spends on defense – more than half of the Cambodian national budget (approximately 50 per cent of which is supplied through foreign aid) is spent on defense and security.

Approximately 85 countries have undergone some sort of disarmament since the end of the Cold War in 1989, but 69 nations have been increasing their stock of weapons – mostly Majority World countries buying from the richer ones. Disarmament could potentially release large amounts of money for development.

## **Suggestions for peace**

Religious groups have long formally opposed or sought to limit war as in the Second Vatican Council document *Gaudium et Spes*: "Any act of war aimed indiscriminately at the destruction of whole cities or extensive areas beside with their population is a crime against God and man himself. It merits unequivocal and unhesitating condemnation." Anti-war movements have existed for every major war in the 20th century, including, most prominently, World War I, World War II, and the Vietnam War. In the 21st century, worldwide anti-war movements occurred ever since the United States declared wars in Afghanistan and Iraq. In 2001, the US government decided to invade Afghanistan to fight against international terrorism that caused the September 11 attacks. Protests opposing the War in Afghanistan occurred in cities in Europe, Asia, and all over the United States. Organizations like Stop the War Coalition, based in the United Kingdom, work on campaigning against the War. They raise awareness of the war, organize demonstrations, and lobby the governments. There also exist important worldwide opposition to the Iraq War. Critics oppose the war based on the argument of violation of sovereignty, absence of the UN approval, and perceived illegitimacy. The Mexican Drug War, with estimated casualties of 40,000 since December 2006, has been recently facing a fundamental opposition. In 2011, the movement for peace and justice has started a popular middle-class movement against the war. It has won the recognition of President Calderon, who started the war, but has not ended it. Governments also use the method of disarmament to stop and prevent the cost of war.

## **PUBLIC OPINION AND PROPAGANDA**

### **Dynamics of Public opinion**

Public opinion is the aggregate of individual attitudes or beliefs. Public

opinion can also be defined as the intricate collection of opinions of several different people and the sum of all their views, or as a single opinion held through an individual in relation to the social or political topic. The meaning of public opinion has changed dramatically over time. Political scientist Susan Herbst writes that "Formalized tabulation of political opinions began in the city-states of ancient Greece, where elections were viewed as central components of the democratic process. Yet it was not until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that quantification became an important element of political discourse in the West."

The German sociologist Ferdinand Tönnies, through using the conceptual tools of his theory of *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft*, argued, that 'public opinion' has the equivalent social function in societies (*Gesellschaften*) which religion has in communities (*Gemeinschaften*).

German social theorist Jürgen Habermas contributed the thought of "Public sphere" to the discussion of public opinion. The Public Sphere, or bourgeois public, is according to Habermas, where "something approaching public opinion can be formed". Habermas claimed that the Public Sphere featured universal access, rational debate, and disregard for rank. Though, he believes that these three features for how public opinion are best formed are no longer in place in western liberal democratic countries. Public opinion, in western democracy, is highly susceptible to elite manipulation.

The American sociologist Herbert Blumer has proposed an altogether different conception of the "public." According to Blumer, public opinion is discussed as a form of communal behavior (another specialized term) which is made up of those who are discussing a given public issue at any one time. Given this definition, there are several publics; each of them comes into being when an issue arises and ceases to exist when the issue is resolved. Blumer claims that people participate in public in different capacities and to different degrees. So, public opinion polling cannot measure the public. An educated individual's participation is more significant than that of a drunk. The "mass," in which people independently create decisions about, for instance, which brand of toothpaste to buy, is a form of communal behavior different from the public.

Public opinion plays a significant role in the political sphere. Cutting crossways all characteristics of relationship flanked by government and public opinion are studies of voting behavior. These have registered the distribution of opinions on a wide diversity of issues, have explored the impact of special interest groups on election outcomes and have contributed to our knowledge in relation to the effects of government propaganda and policy.

Contemporary, quantitative approaches to the study of public opinion may be divided into 4 categories:

1. quantitative measurement of opinion distributions;

2. investigation of the internal relationships among the individual opinions that create up public opinion on an issue;
3. description or analysis of the public role of public opinion;
4. study both of the communication media that disseminate the ideas on which opinions are based and of the uses that propagandists and other manipulators create of these media.

The rapid spread of public opinion measurement approximately the world is reflection of the number of uses to which it can be put. Public opinion can be accurately obtained through survey sampling. Both private firms and governments use surveys to inform public policies and public relations. See opinion poll.

### ***Formation***

Numerous theories and substantial proof exists to explain the formation and dynamics of individuals' opinions. Much of this research draws on psychological research on attitudes. In communications studies and political science, mass media are often seen as influential forces on public opinion. Additionally, political socialization and behavioral genetics sometimes explain public opinion.

### ***Mass media effects on public opinion***

The formation of public opinion starts with agenda setting through major media outlets throughout the world. This agenda setting dictates what is newsworthy and how and when it will be reported. The media agenda is set through a diversity of different environmental and news work factors that determines which stories will be newsworthy.

Another key component in the formation of public opinion is framing. Framing is when a story or piece of news is portrayed in a scrupulous method and is meant to sway the consumers attitude one method or the other. Most political issues are heavily framed in order to persuade voters to vote for a scrupulous candidate. For instance, if Candidate X once voted on a bill that raised income taxes on the middle class, a framing headline would read "Candidate X Doesn't Care In relation to the Middle Class". This puts Candidate X in a negative frame to the news reader.

Social desirability is another key component to the formation of public opinion. Social desirability is the thought that people in general will form their opinions based on what they consider is the prevalent opinion of the social group they identify with. Based on media agenda setting and media framing, most often a scrupulous opinion gets repeated throughout several news mediums and social networking sites, until it makes a false vision where the perceived truth can actually be very distant absent from the actual truth.

Public opinion can be influenced through public relations and the political media. Additionally, mass media utilizes a wide diversity of advertising

techniques to get their message out and change the minds of people. Since the 1950s, television has been the main medium for molding public opinion.

### ***Relationship flanked by opinion and public policy***

The most pervasive issue dividing theories of the opinion-policy relation bears a striking resemblance to the problem of monism-pluralism in the history of philosophy. The controversy deals with the question of whether the structure of socio-political action should be viewed as a more or less centralized process of acts and decisions through a class of key leaders, representing integrated hierarchies of influence in society or whether it is more accurately envisaged as many sets of relatively autonomous opinion and influence groups, interacting with representative decision makers in an official structure of differentiated governmental authority. The former assumption interprets individual, group and official action as part of a single system and reduces politics and governmental policies to a derivative of three basic analytical conditions: society, culture and personality. Public opinion enables the organisation to expand internally and externally through public introspection.

### **Measurement of Public Opinion**

It all started in 1932 when his mother-in-law ran for public office in Iowa. She was running against a popular incumbent, and everyone except him thought her candidacy was a lost cause. He polled her constituency, told her she could win, and gave her some advice. Hers was only the first of several elections he was to predict correctly.

His name was George Gallup — the founder of modern polling.

Since then, polling organizations have proliferated, so that they now play a vital role in American politics. They are able to measure public opinion so accurately because they have cautiously urbanized some very precise methods.

Polls usually start when someone wants a political question answered. For instance, a candidate may wonder, "How several people in my district know who I am and what I do?" Polls can provide some answers, which can help him or her plan a campaign for office. Or a newspaper may want to know, "How do people in this country feel in relation to big tobacco companies?" The publisher can commission a poll, and a reporter can base a story on the research findings. The pollsters then follow many significant steps in gathering accurate statistics:

- Questions necessity be cautiously and objectively worded. For instance, consider a question such as, "How much do you resent the deceptiveness of big tobacco companies?" You could hardly expect an accurate answer. Sometimes the slightest shift in the wording of a question can bring very different results.

- The sample necessity be randomly selected. First, pollsters determine the universe, or the whole group whose attitudes they wish to measure. Since it is usually impossible to question everyone, they necessity use random sampling, a method of selection that provides each potential member of the universe the same chance of being selected. For instance, if the universe is 30% urban, 40% Mexican American, and 50% male, so should the sample be.
- Respondents necessity be contacted in a cost efficient method. Though, accuracy cannot be sacrificed to efficiency. For instance, a straw poll that asks television viewers to call in their opinions is usually not very accurate. After all, the people that call in usually feel very strongly in relation to the issue. And some of them call in more than once. Telephone polls are almost certainly used most commonly today, partly because of the capability of random-digit dialing.

Should politicians monitor the polls? Candidates have been criticized for "waffling" — shifting their positions based on the results of public opinion polls. But if a politicians is supposed to represent the true will of the people, shouldn't public opinion be highly regarded. Americans have different opinions in relation to the whether a leader is expected to use his or her own judgment or reflect the viewpoints of his or her constituency.

Poll results necessity be cautiously and accurately compiled and reported. This is not always an easy task, especially for tracking polls that are measuring changing public opinion. A good instance is an election poll. Statistics that are a week old are not usually very reliable when trying to predict a close presidential race.

Polls can never be totally accurate because a sample cannot replicate the universe exactly. Pollsters allow for this slight chance of inaccuracy with a margin of error. Standard samples of in relation to the 1,000 to 1,500 individuals can usually represent a universe of millions of people with only a small amount of error. A typical margin of error — a measure of the accuracy of a public opinion poll — is in relation to the 3%. In a poll that says that 52% of the respondents favor Janet Smith for Mayor, somewhere flanked by 49% (-3) and 55% (+3) of the voters actually do support her. You can see how predicting a close election can be very hard.

Given the challenges of accurate polling of public opinion, it is amazing that polls that follow the right steps approximately always create the right predictions. They've come a long method since George Gallup helped his mother-in-law win her election in 1932.

### **Changing Public opinion Propaganda**

Propaganda is a form of communication aimed towards influencing the attitude of the community toward some cause or position through presenting only one side of an argument. Propaganda statements may be partly false and

partly true. Propaganda is usually repeated and dispersed over a wide diversity of media in order to make the chosen result in audience attitudes.

As opposed to impartially providing information, propaganda, in its most basic sense, presents information primarily to influence an audience. Propaganda often presents facts selectively (therefore perhaps lying through omission) to encourage a scrupulous synthesis, or uses loaded messages to produce an emotional rather than rational response to the information presented. The desired result is a change of the attitude toward the subject in the target audience to further a political, religious or commercial agenda. Propaganda can be used as a form of ideological or commercial warfare.

While the term propaganda has acquired a strongly negative connotation through association with its most manipulative and jingoistic examples (e.g. Nazi propaganda used to justify the Holocaust), propaganda in its original sense was neutral, and could refer to uses that were usually benign or innocuous, such as public health recommendations, signs encouraging citizens to participate in a census or election, or messages encouraging persons to report crimes to law enforcement, among others.

### ***Types***

Defining propaganda has always been a problem. The main difficulties have involved differentiating propaganda from other types of persuasion, and avoiding an "if they do it then that's propaganda, while if we do it then that's information and education" biased approach. Garth Jowett and Victoria O'Donnell have provided a concise, workable definition of the term: "Propaganda is the deliberate, systematic effort to shape perceptions, manipulate cognitions, and direct behavior to achieve a response that furthers the desired intent of the propagandist." More comprehensive is the description through Richard Alan Nelson: "Propaganda is neutrally defined as a systematic form of purposeful persuasion that attempts to influence the emotions, attitudes, opinions, and actions of specified target audiences for ideological, political or commercial purposes through the controlled transmission of one-sided messages (which may or may not be factual) via mass and direct media channels. A propaganda organization employs propagandists who engage in propagandism—the applied creation and distribution of such forms of persuasion."

Both definitions focus on the communicative process involved — or more precisely, on the purpose of the process, and allow "propaganda" to be measured objectively and then interpreted as positive or negative behavior depending on the perspective of the viewer or listener.

Propaganda is usually an appeal to emotion, not intellect. It shares techniques with advertising and public relations, each of which can be thought of as propaganda that promotes a commercial product or shapes the perception of an organization, person, or brand. In post–World War II usage the word "propaganda" more typically refers to political or nationalist uses of these

techniques or to the promotion of a set of ideas, since the term had gained a pejorative meaning. The refusal phenomenon was eventually to be seen in politics itself through the substitution of "political marketing" and other designations for "political propaganda".

Propaganda was often used to influence opinions and beliefs on religious issues, particularly throughout the split flanked by the Roman Catholic Church and the Protestant churches. Propaganda has become more common in political contexts, in scrupulous to refer to certain efforts sponsored through governments, political groups, but also often covert interests. In the early 20th century, propaganda was exemplified in the form of party slogans. Also in the early 20th century the term *propaganda* was used through the founders of the nascent public relations industry to refer to their activities. This usage died out approximately the time of World War II, as the industry started to avoid the word, given the pejorative connotation it had acquired.

Literally translated from the Latin gerundive as "things that necessity be disseminated", in some cultures the term is neutral or even positive, while in others the term has acquired a strong negative connotation. The connotations of the term "propaganda" can also vary over time. For instance, in Portuguese and some Spanish language speaking countries, particularly in the Southern Cone, the word "propaganda" usually refers to the most common manipulative media — "advertising".

In English, *propaganda* was originally a neutral term for the dissemination of information in favor of any given cause. Throughout the 20th century, though, the term acquired a thoroughly negative meaning in western countries, representing the intentional dissemination of often false, but certainly "compelling" claims to support or justify political actions or ideologies. This redefinition arose because both the Soviet Union and Germany's government under Hitler admitted explicitly to using propaganda favoring, respectively, communism and Nazism, in all forms of public expression. As these ideologies were repugnant to liberal western societies, the negative feelings toward them came to be projected into the word "propaganda" itself. Though, Harold Lasswell observed, as early as 1928, that, "Propaganda has become an epithet of contempt and hate, and the propagandists have sought protective coloration in such names as 'public relations council,' 'specialist in public education,' 'public relations adviser.' "

Roderick Hindery argues that propaganda exists on the political left, and right, and in mainstream centrist parties. Hindery further argues that debates in relation to the most social issues can be productively revisited in the context of asking "what is or is not propaganda?" Not to be overlooked is the link flanked by propaganda, indoctrination, and terrorism/counterterrorism. He argues that threats to destroy are often as socially disruptive as physical devastation itself.

Propaganda also has much in common with public information campaigns through governments, which are planned to encourage or discourage certain forms of behavior (such as wearing seat belts, not smoking, not littering and so forth). Again, the emphasis is more political in propaganda. Propaganda can

take the form of leaflets, posters, TV and radio broadcasts and can also extend to any other medium. In the case of the United States, there is also an significant legal (imposed through law) distinction flanked by advertising (a type of overt propaganda) and what the Government Accountability Office (GAO), an arm of the United States Congress, refers to as "covert propaganda".

Journalistic theory usually holds that news items should be objective, giving the reader an accurate background and analysis of the subject at hand. On the other hand, advertisements evolved from the traditional commercial advertisements to contain also a new type in the form of paid articles or broadcasts disguised as news. These usually present an issue in a very subjective and often misleading light, primarily meant to persuade rather than inform. Normally they use only subtle propaganda techniques and not the more obvious ones used in traditional commercial advertisements. If the reader believes that a paid advertisement is in fact a news item, the message the advertiser is trying to communicate will be more easily "whispered" or "internalized".

Such advertisements are measured obvious examples of "covert" propaganda because they take on the appearance of objective information rather than the appearance of propaganda, which is misleading. Federal law specifically mandates that any advertisement appearing in the format of a news item necessarily state that the item is in fact a paid advertisement.

The propagandist seeks to change the method people understand an issue or situation for the purpose of changing their actions and expectations in methods that are desirable to the interest group. Propaganda, in this sense, serves as a corollary to censorship in which the same purpose is achieved, not through filling people's minds with approved information, but through preventing people from being confronted with opposing points of view. What sets propaganda separately from other forms of advocacy is the willingness of the propagandist to change people's understanding through deception and confusion rather than persuasion and understanding. The leaders of an organization know the information to be one sided or untrue, but this may not be true for the rank and file members who help to disseminate the propaganda.

### *Religion*

More in line with the religious roots of the term, it is also used widely in the debates in relation to the new religious movements (NRMs), both through people who defend them and through people who oppose them. The latter pejoratively call these NRMs cults. Anti-cult activists and counter cult activists accuse the leaders of what they consider cults of using propaganda extensively to recruit followers and keep them. Some social scientists, such as the late Jeffrey Hadden, and CESNUR affiliated scholars accuse ex-members of "cults" who became vocal critics and the anti-cult movement of making these unusual religious movements look bad without enough reasons.

## Wartime

Propaganda is a powerful weapon in war; it is used to dehumanize and make hatred toward a supposed enemy, either internal or external, through creating a false image in the mind. This can be done through using derogatory or racist conditions, avoiding some words or through making allegations of enemy atrocities. Most propaganda wars require the home population to feel the enemy has inflicted an injustice, which may be fictitious or may be based on facts. The home population necessarily also decide that the cause of their nation is just.

Propaganda is also one of the methods used in psychological warfare, which may also involve false flag operations. The term propaganda may also refer to false information meant to reinforce the mindsets of people who already consider as the propagandist wishes. The assumption is that, if people consider something false, they will constantly be assailed through doubts. Since these doubts are unpleasant, people will be eager to have them extinguished, and are so receptive to the reassurances of those in power. For this cause *propaganda is often addressed to people who are already sympathetic to the agenda*. This process of reinforcement uses an individual's predisposition to self-select "agreeable" information sources as a mechanism for maintaining control.

Propaganda can be classified according to the source and nature of the message. White propaganda usually comes from an openly recognized source, and is characterized through gentler methods of persuasion, such as standard public relations techniques and one-sided presentation of an argument. Black propaganda is recognized as being from one source, but is in fact from another. This is most commonly to disguise the true origins of the propaganda, be it from an enemy country or from an organization with a negative public image. Grey propaganda is propaganda without any identifiable source or author. A major application of grey propaganda is making enemies consider falsehoods using straw arguments: As phase one, to create someone consider "A", one releases as grey propaganda "B", the opposite of "A". In phase two, "B" is discredited using some straw man. The enemy will then assume "A" to be true.

In scale, these different types of propaganda can also be defined through the potential of true and correct information to compete with the propaganda. For instance, opposition to white propaganda is often readily found and may slightly discredit the propaganda source. Opposition to grey propaganda, when revealed (often through an inside source), may make some level of public outcry. Opposition to black propaganda is often unavailable and may be dangerous to reveal, because public cognizance of black propaganda tactics and sources would undermine or backfire the very campaign the black propagandist supported.

Propaganda may be administered in insidious methods. For instance, disparaging disinformation in relation to the history of certain groups or

foreign countries may be encouraged or tolerated in the educational system. Since few people actually double-check what they learn at school, such disinformation will be repeated through journalists as well as parents, therefore reinforcing the thought that the disinformation item is really a "well-recognized fact", even though no one repeating the myth is able to point to an authoritative source. The disinformation is then recycled in the media and in the educational system, without the need for direct governmental intervention on the media. Such permeating propaganda may be used for political goals: through giving citizens a false impression of the quality or policies of their country, they may be incited to reject certain proposals or certain remarks or ignore the experience of others.

In the Soviet Union throughout the Second World War, the propaganda intended to encourage civilians was controlled through Stalin, who insisted on a heavy-handed style that educated audiences easily saw was inauthentic. On the other hand the unofficial rumors in relation to the German atrocities were well founded and convincing.

### **Techniques Of Propaganda**

Common media for transmitting propaganda messages contain news reports, government reports, historical revision, junk science, books, leaflets, movies, radio, television, and posters. Less common nowadays are letter post envelopes examples of which of survive from the time of the American Civil War. In principle any thing that appears on a poster can be produced on a reduced scale on a pocket-style envelope with corresponding proportions to the poster. The case of radio and television, propaganda can exist on news, current-affairs or talk-show segments, as advertising or public-service announce "spots" or as long-running advertorials. Propaganda campaigns often follow a strategic transmission pattern to indoctrinate the target group. This may begin with a simple transmission such as a leaflet dropped from a plane or an advertisement. Usually these messages will contain directions on how to obtain more information, via a web site, hot line, radio program, etc (as it is seen also for selling purposes among other goals). The strategy intends to initiate the individual from information recipient to information seeker through reinforcement, and then from information seeker to opinion leader through indoctrination.

A number of techniques based in social psychological research are used to generate propaganda. Several of these same techniques can be found under logical fallacies, since propagandists use arguments that, while sometimes convincing, are not necessarily valid.

Some time has been spent analyzing the means through which the propaganda messages are transmitted. That work is significant but it is clear that information dissemination strategies become propaganda strategies only when coupled with *propagandistic messages*. Identifying these messages is a

necessary prerequisite to study the methods through which those messages are spread. Below are a number of techniques for generating propaganda:

- Ad hominem: A Latin phrase that has come to mean attacking one's opponent, as opposed to attacking their arguments.
- Ad nauseam: This argument approach uses tireless repetition of an thought . An thought , especially a simple slogan, that is repeated enough times, may begin to be taken as the truth. This approach works best when media sources are limited or controlled through the propagator.
- Appeal to authority: Appeals to authority cite prominent figures to support a position, thought , argument, or course of action.
- Appeal to fear: Appeals to fear and seeks to build support through instilling anxieties and panic in the general population, for instance, Joseph Goebbels exploited Theodore Kaufman's *Germany Necessity Perish!* to claim that the Allies sought the extermination of the German people.
- Appeal to prejudice: Using loaded or emotive conditions to attach value or moral goodness to believing the proposition. Used in biased or misleading methods.
- Bandwagon: Bandwagon and "inevitable-victory" appeals effort to persuade the target audience to join in and take the course of action that "everyone else is taking".
- Inevitable victory: Invites those not already on the bandwagon to join those already on the road to certain victory. Those already or at least partially on the bandwagon are reassured that staying aboard is their best course of action.
- Join the crowd: This technique reinforces people's natural desire to be on the winning side. This technique is used to convince the audience that a program is an expression of an irresistible mass movement and that it is in their best interest to join.
- Beautiful people: The type of propaganda that deals with celebrities or depicts attractive, happy people. This suggests if people buy a product or follow a certain ideology, they too will be happy or successful.
- The Lie: The repeated articulation of a intricate of events that justify subsequent action. The descriptions of these events have elements of truth, and the "big lie" generalizations merge and eventually supplant the public's accurate perception of the underlying events. After World War I the German Stab in the back explanation of the cause of their defeat became a justification for Nazi re-militarization and revanchist aggression.
- Black-and-white fallacy: Presenting only two choices, with the product or thought being propagated as the better choice. For instance: "You're either with us, or against us...."

- Classical conditioning: All vertebrates, including humans, respond to classical conditioning. That is, if object A is always present when object B is present and object B causes a physical reaction (e.g., disgust, pleasure) then we will when presented with object A when object B is not present, we will experience the same feelings.
- Cognitive dissonance: People desire to be constant. Suppose a pollster finds that a certain group of people hates his candidate for senator but loves actor A. They use actor A's endorsement of their candidate to change people's minds because people cannot tolerate inconsistency. They are forced to either to dislike the actor or like the candidate.
- Common man: "The "plain folks" or "common man" approach attempts to convince the audience that the propagandist's positions reflect the common sense of the people. It is intended to win the confidence of the audience through communicating in the common manner and style of the target audience. Propagandists use ordinary language and mannerisms (and clothe their message in face-to-face and audiovisual communications) in attempting to identify their point of view with that of the average person. With the plain folks device, the propagandist can win the confidence of persons who resent or distrust foreign sounding, intellectual speech, words, or mannerisms." For instance, a politician speaking to a Southern United States crowd might incorporate words such as "Y'all" and other colloquialisms to make a perception of belonging.
- Cult of personality: A cult of personality arises when an individual uses mass media to make an idealized and heroic public image, often through unquestioning flattery and praise. The hero personality then advocates the positions that the propagandist desires to promote. For instance, modern propagandists hire popular personalities to promote their ideas and/or products.
- Demonizing the enemy: Making individuals from the opposing nation, from a different ethnic group, or those who support the opposing viewpoint appear to be subhuman (e.g., the Vietnam War-era term "gooks" for National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam aka Vietcong, or "VC", soldiers), worthless, or immoral, through suggestion or false accusations. Dehumanizing is also a term used synonymously with demonizing, the latter usually serves as an aspect of the former.
- Dictat: This technique hopes to simplify the decision making process through using images and words to tell the audience exactly what actions to take, eliminating any other possible choices. Authority figures can be used to provide the order, overlapping it with the Appeal to authority technique, but not necessarily. The Uncle Sam "I want you" image is an instance of this technique.

- **Disinformation:** The creation or deletion of information from public records, in the purpose of making a false record of an event or the actions of a person or organization, including outright forgery of photographs, motion pictures, broadcasts, and sound recordings as well as printed documents.
- **Door-in-the-face technique:** Is used to augment a person's latitude of acceptance. For instance, if a salesperson wants to sell an item for \$100 but the public is only willing to pay \$50, the salesperson first offers the item at a higher price (e.g., \$200) and subsequently reduces the price to \$100 to create it seem like a good deal.
- **Euphoria:** The use of an event that generates euphoria or happiness, or using an appealing event to boost morale. Euphoria can be created through declaring a holiday, making luxury items accessible, or mounting a military parade with marching bands and patriotic messages.
- **Fear, uncertainty, and doubt:** An effort to influence public perception through disseminating negative and dubious/false information intended to undermine the credibility of their beliefs.
- **Foot-in-the-door technique:** Often used through recruiters and salesmen. For instance, a member of the opposite sex walks up to the victim and pins a flower or provides a small gift to the victim. The victim says thanks and now they have incurred a psychological debt to the perpetrator. The person eventually asks for a superior favor (e.g., a donation or to buy something distant more expensive). The unwritten social contract flanked by the victim and perpetrator causes the victim to feel obligated to reciprocate through agreeing to do the superior favor or buy the more expensive gift.
- **Glittering generalities:** Glittering generalities are emotionally appealing words that are applied to a product or thought, but present no concrete argument or analysis. This technique has also been referred to as the PT Barnum effect.
- **Half-truth:** A half-truth is a deceptive statement, which may come in many forms and comprises some element of truth. The statement might be partly true, the statement may be totally true but only part of the whole truth, or it may utilize some deceptive element, such as improper punctuation, or double meaning, especially if the intent is to deceive, evade, blame or misrepresent the truth.
- **Labeling:** A euphemism is used when the propagandist attempts to augment the perceived quality, credibility, or credence of a scrupulous ideal. A dysphemism is used when the intent of the propagandist is to discredit, diminish the perceived quality, or hurt the perceived righteousness of the Mark. Through creating a "label" or "category" or "faction" of a population, it is much easier to create an instance of these superior bodies, because they can uplift or defame the Mark

without actually incurring legal-defamation. Instance: "Liberal" is a dysphemism planned to diminish the perceived credibility of a scrupulous Mark. Through taking a displeasing argument presented through a Mark, the propagandist can quote that person, and then attack "liberals" in an effort to both (1) make a political battle-ax of unaccountable aggression and (2) diminish the quality of the Mark. If the propagandist uses the label on too-several perceivably credible individuals, muddying up the word can be done through broadcasting bad-examples of "liberals" into the media. Labeling can be thought of as a sub-set of Guilt through association, another logical fallacy.

- Latitudes of acceptance: If a person's message is outside the bounds of acceptance for an individual and group, most techniques will engender psychological reactance (simply hearing the argument will create the message even less acceptable). There are two techniques for increasing the bounds of acceptance. First, one can take a more even extreme position that will create more moderate positions seem more acceptable. This is similar to the Door-in-the-Face technique. Alternatively, one can moderate one's own position to the edge of the latitude of acceptance and then over time slowly move to the position that was previously.
- Love bombing: Used to recruit members to a cult or ideology through having a group of individuals cut off a person from their existing social support and replace it entirely with members of the group who deliberately bombard the person with affection in an effort to isolate the person from their prior beliefs and value system—see Milieu control.
- Lying and deception: Lying and deception can be the basis of several propaganda techniques including Ad Hominem arguments, Big-Lie, Defamation, Door-in-the-Face, Half-truth, Name-calling or any other technique that is based on dishonesty or deception. For instance, several politicians have been found to regularly stretch or break the truth.
- Managing the news: According to Adolf Hitler "The most brilliant propagandist technique will yield no success unless one fundamental principle is borne in mind constantly - it necessity confine itself to a few points and repeat them over and over." This thought is constant with the principle of classical conditioning as well as the thought of "Staying on Message."
- Milieu control: An effort to control the social environment and ideas through the use of social pressure
- Name-calling: Propagandists use the *name-calling technique* to incite fears and arouse prejudices in their hearers in the intent that the bad names will cause hearers to construct a negative opinion in relation to the group or set of beliefs or ideas that the propagandist wants hearers

to denounce. The method is planned to provoke conclusions in relation to the matter separately from impartial examinations of facts. Name-calling is therefore a substitute for rational, fact-based arguments against the an thought or belief on its own merits.

- Obfuscation, intentional vagueness, confusion: Generalities are deliberately vague so that the audience may supply its own interpretations. The intention is to move the audience through use of undefined phrases, without analyzing their validity or attempting to determine their reasonableness or application. The intent is to cause people to draw their own interpretations rather than simply being presented with an explicit thought . In trying to "figure out" the propaganda, the audience forgoes judgment of the ideas presented. Their validity, reasonableness and application may still be measured.
- Obtain disapproval or *Reductio ad Hitlerum*: This technique is used to persuade a target audience to disapprove of an action or thought through suggesting that the thought is popular with groups hated, feared, or held in contempt through the target audience. Therefore if a group that supports a certain policy is led to consider that undesirable, subversive, or contemptible people support the same policy, then the members of the group may decide to change their original position. This is a form of bad logic, where a is said to contain X, and b is said to contain X, so, a = b.
- Operant conditioning: Operant conditioning involves learning through imitation. For instance, watching an appealing person buy products or endorse positions teaches a person to buy the product or endorse the position. Operant conditioning is the underlying principle behind the Ad Nauseam, Slogan and other repetition public relations campaigns.
- Oversimplification: Favorable generalities are used to give simple answers to intricate social, political, economic, or military problems.
- Pensée unique: Enforced reduction of discussion through use of overly simplistic phrases or arguments (e.g., "There is no alternative to war.")
- Quotes out of context: Selectively editing quotes to change meanings—political documentaries intended to discredit an opponent or an opposing political viewpoint often create use of this technique.
- Rationalization (making excuses): Individuals or groups may use favorable generalities to rationalize questionable acts or beliefs. Vague and pleasant phrases are often used to justify such actions or beliefs.
- Red herring: Presenting data or issues that, while compelling, are irrelevant to the argument at hand, and then claiming that it validates the argument.
- Repetition: This is the repeating of a certain symbol or slogan so that the audience remembers it. This could be in the form of a jingle or an image placed on almost everything in the picture/scene. This also

comprises using subliminal phrases, images or other content in a piece of propaganda.

- Scapegoating: Assigning blame to an individual or group, therefore alleviating feelings of guilt from responsible parties and/or distracting attention from the need to fix the problem for which blame is being assigned.
- Slogans: A slogan is a brief, striking phrase that may contain labeling and stereotyping. Although slogans may be enlisted to support reasoned ideas, in practice they tend to act only as emotional appeals. Opponents of the US's invasion and occupation of Iraq use the slogan "blood for oil" to suggest that the invasion and its human losses was done to access Iraq's oil riches. On the other hand, supporters who argue that the US should continue to fight in Iraq use the slogan "cut and run" to suggest withdrawal is cowardly or weak.
- Stereotyping: This technique attempts to arouse prejudices in an audience through labeling the object of the propaganda campaign as something the target audience fears, hates, loathes, or finds undesirable. For instance, reporting on a foreign country or social group may focus on the stereotypical traits that the reader expects, even though they are distant from being representative of the whole country or group; such reporting often focuses on the anecdotal. In graphic propaganda, including war posters, this might contain portraying enemies with stereotyped racial features.
- Straw man: A straw man argument is an informal fallacy based on misrepresentation of an opponent's position. To "attack a straw man" is to make the illusion of having refuted a proposition through substituting a superficially similar proposition (the "straw man"), and refuting it, without ever having actually refuted the original position.
- Testimonial: Testimonials are quotations, in or out of context, especially cited to support or reject a given policy, action, program, or personality. The reputation or the role (expert, respected public figure, etc.) of the individual giving the statement is exploited. The testimonial places the official sanction of a respected person or authority on a propaganda message. This is done in an effort to cause the target audience to identify itself with the authority or to accept the authority's opinions and beliefs as its own.
- Third party technique: Works on the principle that people are more willing to accept an argument from a seemingly independent source of information than from someone with a stake in the outcome. It is a marketing strategy commonly employed through Public Relations (PR) firms that involves placing a premeditated message in the "mouth of the media." Third party technique can take several forms, ranging from the hiring of journalists to report the organization in a favorable light, to using scientists within the organization to present their perhaps

prejudicial findings to the public. Regularly astroturf groups or front groups are used to deliver the message. Foreign governments, particularly those that own marketable commercial products or services, often promote their interests and positions through the advertising of those goods because the target audience is not only largely unaware of the forum as vehicle for foreign messaging but also willing to receive the message while in a mental state of absorbing information from advertisements throughout television commercial breaks, while reading a periodical, or while passing through billboards in public spaces. A prime instance of this messaging technique is advertising campaigns to promote international travel. While advertising foreign destinations and services may stem from the typical goal of increasing revenue through drawing more tourism, some travel campaigns carry the additional or alternative planned purpose of promoting good sentiments or improving existing ones among the target audience towards a given nation or region. It is common for advertising promoting foreign countries to be produced and distributed through the tourism ministries of those countries, so these ads often carry political statements and/or depictions of the foreign government's desired international public perception. Additionally, a wide range of foreign airlines and travel-related services which advertise separately from the destinations, themselves, are owned through their respective governments; examples contain, though are not limited to, the Emirates airline (Dubai), Singapore Airlines (Singapore), Qatar Airways (Qatar), China Airlines (Taiwan/Republic of China), and Air China (People's Republic of China). Through depicting their destinations, airlines, and other services in a favorable and pleasant light, countries market themselves to populations abroad in a manner that could mitigate prior public impressions. *See: Soft Power.*

- Thought-terminating cliché: A commonly used phrase, sometimes passing as folk wisdom, used to quell cognitive dissonance.
- Transfer: Also recognized as association, this is a technique that involves projecting the positive or negative qualities of one person, entity, object, or value onto another to create the second more acceptable or to discredit it. It evokes an emotional response, which stimulates the target to identify with recognized authorities. Often highly visual, this technique often utilizes symbols (e.g. swastikas) superimposed over other visual images (e.g. logos). These symbols may be used in place of words.
- Selective truth: Richard Crossman, the British Deputy Director of Psychological Warfare Division (PWD) for the Supreme Headquarters Allied Expeditionary Force (SHAEF) throughout the Second World War said "In propaganda truth pays... It is a complete delusion to think of the brilliant propagandist as being a professional liar. The brilliant propagandist is the man who tells the truth, or that selection of the truth

which is requisite for his purpose, and tells it in such a method that the recipient does not think he is getting any propaganda... [...] The art of propaganda is not telling lies, but rather selecting the truth you require and giving it mixed up with some truths the audience wants to hear."

- Unstated assumption: This technique is used when the thought the propagandist wants to plant would seem less credible if explicitly stated. The concept is instead repeatedly assumed or implied.
- Virtue words: These are words in the value system of the target audience that produce a positive image when attached to a person or issue. Peace, happiness, security, wise leadership, freedom, "The Truth", etc. are virtue words. Several see religiosity as a virtue, making associations to this quality effectively beneficial. Their use is measured of the *Transfer* propaganda technique.

## **Instruments of propaganda**

The field of social Psychology comprises the study of persuasion. Social psychologists can be sociologists or psychologists. The field comprises several theories and approaches to understanding persuasion. For instance, communication theory points out that people can be persuaded through the communicator's credibility, expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. The elaboration likelihood model as well as heuristic models of persuasion suggest that a number of factors (e.g., the degree of interest of the recipient of the communication), influence the degree to which people allow superficial factors to persuade them. Nobel Prize winning psychologist Herbert A. Simon won the Nobel prize for his theory that people are cognitive misers. That is, in a society of mass information people are forced to create decisions quickly and often superficially, as opposed to logically.

Social cognitive theories suggest that people have inherent biases in the method they perceive the world and these biases can be used to manipulate them. For instance, people tend to consider that people's misfortune (e.g., poverty) is a result of the person and downplay external factors (e.g., being born into poverty). This bias is referred to as the Fundamental Attribution Error. Self Fulfilling prophecies occur when people consider what they have been told they are. Propaganda regularly plays upon people's existing biases to achieve its end. For instance, the illusion of control, refers to people's seemingly innate desire to consider they can and should control their lives. Propagandists regularly argue their point through claiming that the other side is attempting to take away your control. For instance, Republicans regularly claim that Democrats are attempting to control you through imposing big government on your private life and take away your spending power through imposing higher taxes while Democrats regularly argue that they are reigning

in big corporations that are attempting to influence elections with money, power and take absent your job, health etc. ... According to bipartisan analysis, these claims are regularly untrue.

Role theory is regularly used to identify an thought as appropriate because it is associated with a role. For instance, the public relations firm Leo Burnett Worldwide used the Marlboro Man to persuade males that Marlboro cigarettes were a part of being a cool, risk-taking, cowboy rebel who was fearless in the face of threats of cancer. The campaign quadrupled sales of their cigarettes. Of course, smoking has nothing to do with being a cowboy or a rebel. This is a fantasy but the campaign's success is constant with the tenets of role theory. In fact, the three actors who played the Marlboro man died of lung cancer.

### **REVIEW QUESTIONS**

- Discuss nature and types of aggression with appropriate examples.
- What are the clinical classifications of aggression?
- Describe instrumental aggression and differentiate it from hostile aggression.
- Discuss the several other training programme for intervention in aggression and indicate if there is failure of parent training how would it affect the interventions?
- In what methods one could organize intervention programmes in schools for reducing aggression
- What is propaganda? Explain the techniques of propaganda.

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